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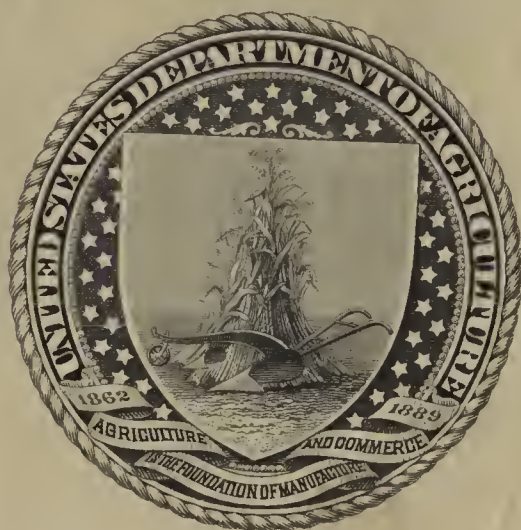
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THE
GANG
ILLUSTRATED



PATRON'S HAND-BOOK

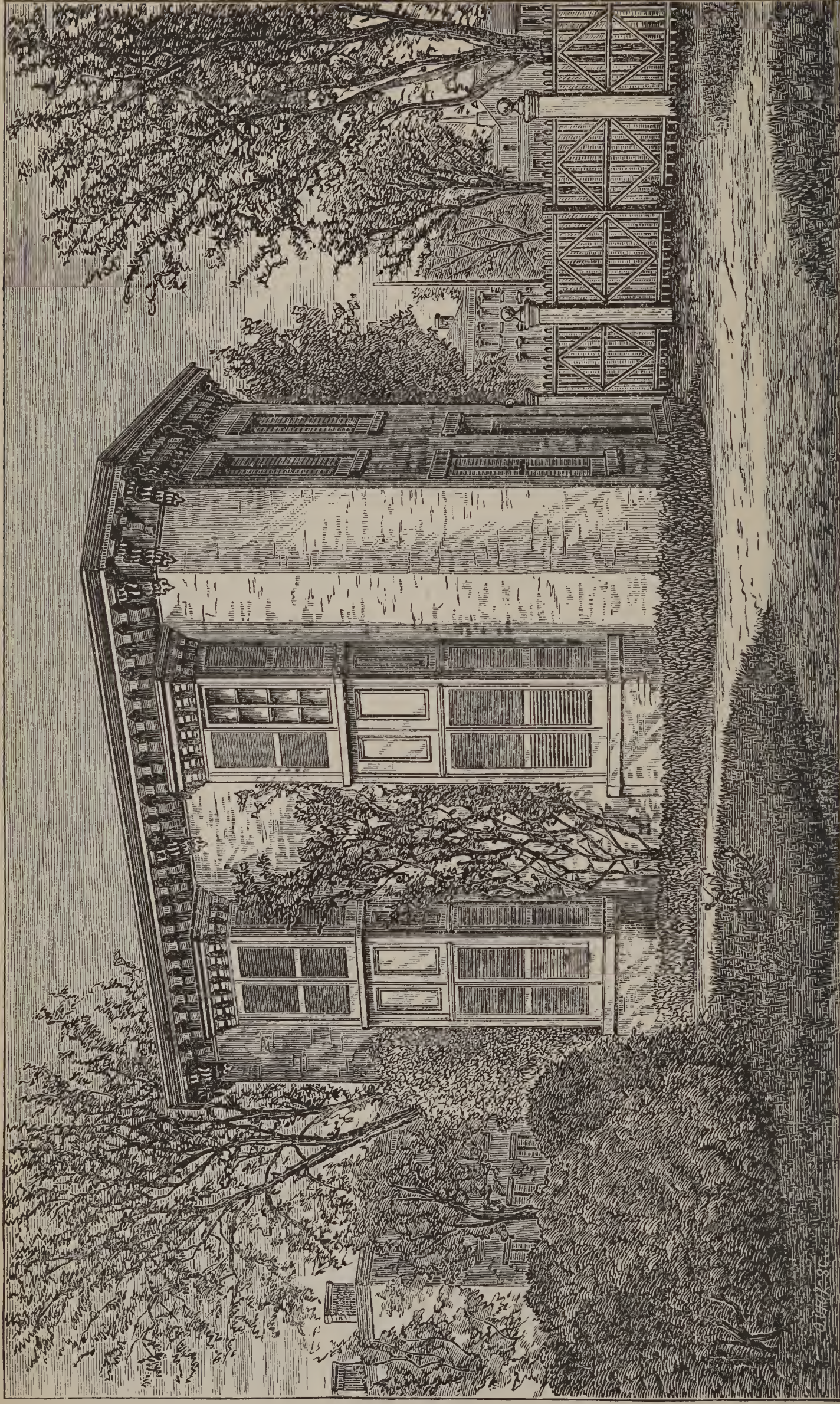
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Office of *William Saunders*, 4½ street, near *Missouri avenue*, *D. C.* The *Birth-Place* of the *Order of "Patrons of Husbandry,"* where the *First National Grange* was organized, *December 4, 1867.*

THE
GRANGE
ILLUSTRATED;
OR
PATRON'S HAND-BOOK,
IN THE INTERESTS OF THE ORDER OF
PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY.

EMBRACING THE
ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE ORDER, CONSTITUTIONS, BY-LAWS, RULES AND REGULATIONS OF NATIONAL, STATE, AND SUBORDINATE GRANGES.—CO-OPERATION IN ITS ADAPTATIONS TO THE ORDER—SOCIAL EXERCISES—SONGS—MUSIC—RECITATIONS—BEST METHODS OF FARMING, THE MOST APPROVED FARMING MACHINERY—STOCK—POULTRY—FERTILIZERS, Etc.

TOGETHER WITH INVALUABLE SUGGESTIONS, RECIPES, HINTS, AND GEMS OF WISDOM FOR

FARMERS' EVERY-DAY WANTS.

By JOHN G. WELLS,

W. MASTER KNICKERBOCKER GRANGE—AUTHOR OF "WELLS' EVERY MAN HIS OWN LAWYER,"
"ILLUSTRATED NATIONAL HAND-BOOK," ETC.

APPROVED BY, AND UNDER THE DIRECT SUPERVISION OF

WILLIAM SAUNDERS, ✓

CHAIRMAN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL GRANGE;

T. A. THOMPSON,

WORTHY LECTURER OF THE NATIONAL GRANGE;

AND OTHER PROMINENT OFFICERS OF THE ORDER.



NEW YORK:
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1874.

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To the
FOUNDERS
OF THE ORDER OF
Patrons of Husbandry,
AND TO ALL WHO APPRECIATE
PRODUCERS,
THE ONLY CLASS WHO ADD TO THE WEALTH OF A NATION,
THIS VOLUME IS RESPECTFULLY
DEDICATED.

DEC 3 1928



GRANGE ROOM—OFFICERS IN POSITION.

P R E F A C E.

OUR desire to render the "GRANGE ILLUSTRATED" a satisfactory manual or hand-book to all the officers and members of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry, has occasioned a delay in its publication, which, though to be regretted, will enhance its value to all who desire to become acquainted with its history, its principles, or its work.

The recent origin of the Order, the erroneous statements in regard both to its beginnings and its purposes; the persistent misrepresentations in regard to its political aims, and the astounding rapidity of its growth during the past year, have all rendered delay necessary, that every point might be thoroughly guarded, and that it might indeed be a "hand-book" for Patrons in the future as well as for the present time.

The work has been one of very considerable labor, but we are gratified to know that it is not by any means labor lost; that it is a book which every Patron may put into the hands of a friend, as giving the best and truest answer to the questions so often asked: Who and what are the Patrons of Husbandry? What is their history? What are their objects and purposes, and how do they propose to attain their ends?

To all patrons as well as officers of the Granges, the "Grange Illustrated" will be found indispensable. All newly elected officers in particular will be able, by its aid, to perform their duties far more easily and satisfactorily than they could possibly do without it. Every Deputy will need the work to aid him in organizing new Granges, and the applicants for Charter or Dispensation will be better qualified to enter on their work in a week by its use than they could be in six months without it.

It is believed also that the Literary Exercises and Songs for the Grange will prove of great advantage where there is so often a scarcity of such material, especially in scattered farming communities. The Farmers' and Household portions of the book have been prepared with great care, and will be found valuable to the members of the Order.

The work has been wholly prepared by members and officers of the Order, under the sanction and approval of the officers of the Na-

tional Grange, who have been consulted at every step of its progress. And we here express our heartfelt thanks for the valuable assistance cheerfully and freely rendered us by Worthy Brother William Saunders, founder of the Order, Past Worthy Master, now Chairman of the Executive Committee of the National Grange; his colaborers, members of the National Executive Committee, Worthy Bros. D. Wyatt Aiken and E. R. Shankland; D. W. Adams, Worthy Master National Grange; T. A. Thompson, Worthy Lecturer National Grange; O. H. Kelley, Worthy Secretary National Grange; F. M. McDowell, Worthy Treasurer National Grange; and George D. Hinckley, Worthy Master New York State Grange. Their many kindnesses will ever be a pleasing remembrance. With such spirits, fully enlisted, devoted, self-sacrificing, "*there can be no such word as fail.*" In their efforts to elevate the members of our great and glorious Order to a still higher sphere of educational, moral, and social life, it is reasonable to anticipate that the time is not far distant when they will have occasion to rejoice in the fact that the good time has come when nearly every individual interested in the tilling of the soil, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Canadas to the Gulf, shall be enrolled under the banner of "*Down with Oppression, up with Protection.*" With such true hearts in the cause, endorsed, supported, sustained by the attractive, potent power of *woman*, represented in the Order by the three *Goddesses*, FLORA, CERES, and POMONA, who will question that the hopes of the most sanguine will be realized?

Well, then, let all, with overflowing hearts, echo the refrain, "GOD SPEED THE RIGHT."

That this work may prove the means of the still more rapid growth of our noble Order, and its advancement in all good works, is the sincere desire and earnest hope of its

AUTHORS.

NEW YORK, Aug., 1874.

THE GRANGE; OR, THE ORDER OF THE PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY.

INTRODUCTION.

To write the real history of the origin and formation of the Grange, would be to write the history of the origin and development of the social, the industrial and political development of civilized society. In the career of humanity upon this planet there has been nothing lost, nothing wasted; but as the vegetation which to-day clothes the surface of the earth with its infinite variety and beauty of form and color, has been made possible only by the slow process of disintegration and decay of all those which have preceded it, so all that has preceded in the history of social development has served as a preparation for the Grange.

With the discovery and settlement of this country, the materials were obtained by which the conceptions of the form of the earth—of its position in space, and of the destiny of mankind upon it—were entirely changed from those which had existed from the earliest times, even among the most cultured civilizations. The earth had been always, of necessity, supposed to be a plane, above the surface of which the sun passed daily; before, by the slow process of observation and experience, by the growth of the industrial arts, man had obtained the knowledge sufficient to make possible the construction of a vessel competent for enduring a voyage upon the ocean.

When finally Columbus, in his attempt to find a shorter way to reach the wealth of the Indies, undertook his voyage which led to the discovery of San Salvador, a stimulus was given to the spirit of enterprise and discovery, which led finally to the circumnavigation of the earth, and the consequent demonstration of its form, and its position in space. Though the insane greed for gold lay at the foundation of the first attempts at settling this new continent, the knowledge of the surface of the country which was necessarily gained by the searches undertaken for the fabled El Dorados it was supposed to contain, enabled the subsequent expeditions to proceed with the intelligent definiteness of rational knowledge, instead of with the ignorant enthusiasm of mere specu-

lation. So that finally, when religious persecution forced the emigration to this country, the spirit with which it was settled afforded an augury of the future which was reserved for it.

In this way the basis of an industrial settlement of America was laid, and the materials were prepared which, in the fullness of time, made the colonists sufficiently discontented with the servility of being subjects, to demand their political freedom. The success of the struggle of 1776 opened a new era in the industrial development of the young nation. The boundless fields of the West were opened for settlement, and for the first time in the history of modern civilization, the ownership of the soil was made possible for those whose labor had reclaimed it from the wildness of nature and made it productive. With this fresh opportunity thus opened for the industry of the world to exercise its function, and to remain sovereign and free before the task of creating for itself the material conditions for comfort, with the culture that such freedom implies, no wonder that the tide of emigration set in that direction, as had never before been seen.

Before the industry of Europe, who by the labor of generations had built up the wealth of cities, only to find as their reward, that they were still forced to live in hovels, while the major part of their production was still taken to support the arrogant profusion of those claiming to be their rulers, who with the insolence of power refused them even the inherent right of political representation; a new chance was opened for life and the enjoyments of the right to labor.

Thus was inaugurated the industrial movement which is so marked a feature of the nineteenth century. The necessities and the activities of a new era led to the development of new methods for supplying the new demands. The railroad, the steamboat, the telegraph, the public school, the daily paper, are but evidences of the transformation which has been wrought in the daily lives, the daily interests, and the daily needs of industry. It would be as futile to suppose that the activity of social life which these appliances at once indicate, foster and supply, should be contented with the isolation, the ignorance, or stolid indifference to wrong which characterize a nation of serfs, as it would have been to look for an elevated morality, an intellectual activity, or a jealous love of liberty, among the slaves chained in the slave-pens of imperial Rome.

* Unconsciously, perhaps, but with none the less certainty, the activity of the past fifty years has made the organization of the Grange a necessity. At the same time also it has made it possible. The railroad and the telegraph imply a sympathetic coherence in the body politic, as surely as the nerves and circu-

latory system imply the unity of the organized being in whom we find them. But while the influence of these agents cannot be denied ; while the educational effects of the public school and the printing-press should not be overlooked, it is chiefly to the scientific phase of thought, and the scientific methods of observation, which make the pre-eminent glory of the nineteenth century, that the definite form of social and industrial activity which distinguishes the Grange, must be ascribed.

Partaking in this spirit of the age, the application of the methods of scientific inquiry to the facts of our social and industrial organization, has led to the rejection of the beliefs which satisfied a less sceptical period of history. As the demonstration of the rotundity of the earth led necessarily to the intellectual rejection of the whole physical philosophy of antiquity, to the culture of the producers, and their growing realization of their function in society, has led already to their rejection of all received ideas of industrial justice, and their determination to reconstruct our system of the distribution of the wealth they create, upon a more rational system, and one which shall be more in accordance with their higher morality and their higher conception of the dignity of labor.

That the time was ripe for the movement, and that the proposed methods met the wide-felt necessity for the change, is triumphantly demonstrated by the success which it has already reached. At the same time also, those who enjoy the privilege of taking part in it, and of receiving the inspiration of the exalted sympathy with which it is instinct, know that great as have been already its results, they are but an earnest of what they will be. He who fifty years ago would have confidently predicted the railroad and the telegraph ; who should have promised that in his life-time the world would be possessed of the modes of machinery which are to-day everywhere in action, would have been contemptuously disregarded as a visionary dreamer. And yet they are a part of our daily lives, and their influence is daily at work, preparing the material basis for the higher conceptions of honesty, of brotherhood, of happiness, which have heretofore floated dimly in the future as impossible dreams before the lovers of humanity.

As in the early history of mankind, the marvels of industry which are to-day easily performed, were considered to be so far beyond the power of human achievement, that genii, fairies, spirits, and the whole army of spiritual beings were brought into requisition for their accomplishment ; so in the Grange, humanity has arrived at the practical arrangement of the machinery for the realization of the reign of honesty in business, of justice in the distribution of the results of labor, of the sympathy and love in all human rela-

tions, and in the universal reign of comfort, towards which the race has been blindly struggling through all the ages. There was therefore a significance, though perhaps it was unconscious, in the selection made by the National Grange for the device upon its seal, and the best wishes of the best portion of the race will be fervently given for its support. This motto is,

ESTO PERPETUA.

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THE GRANGE ILLUSTRATED:

OR,

PATRON'S HAND-BOOK.

Part I.

Origin and History of the Order.

THE rapid growth and astonishing progress of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry is one of the greatest marvels of the world's history. Originating less than seven years ago in the humblest manner, in a small office in the city of Washington, where less than ten persons were gathered; without the prestige of wealth, fame, or official position; ridiculed by the greater part of the few who heard of it, as an utopian scheme, impracticable, and void of elements of success; avowedly avoiding, indeed prohibiting, all consideration of political topics; with no man of National or wide State reputation among its founders; so hard pressed for funds that it began its existence by running in debt; making such slow progress at first that at the end of its first year it had, taking in the entire continent, but ten or eleven Granges, and not over six hundred members; and at the close of the third year a membership of not more than five thousand. Yet, now, in the fifth month of its seventh year, it has over sixteen thousand subordinate Granges, and a membership of a million and a half, and increasing in numbers at the rate of a hundred thousand or more a month.

Intelligent men are inquiring "whereunto this thing will grow;" politicians with heavy boots worn over their pantaloons, rough coats and rougher hats, and "hay-seed in their hair," are telling gaping crowds that "they were brought up as farmers," that they always were "interested in husbandry," and that they are down on the railroads and middlemen; while men who never owned land enough to give them a decent burial plot, are trying frantically to recall some verses in praise of the farmer's life.

What has caused such a revolution in public feeling? What is the meaning of this astounding success? And will it last? These are the questions, with some others, which we propose to answer in this book, by giving the origin, history, progress, aims, and purposes of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry.

And beginning with the last inquiry, we reply that *it will last*, because it has a beneficent mission to fulfil; not one of partisanship, of exclusiveness, or of sectional or national prejudice; but a mission of education, of cultivation, of social, intellectual, moral, and financial advancement, and one which seeks the greatest good of the greatest number, and no malice or injury to any son or daughter of Adam.

The remote causes which led to the organization of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry, have their roots far back in the past. At a period not far from the commencement of our era, at the time when Virgil wrote his Georgics, or when, somewhat later, Aretæus extolled the farmer's life, there was felt the need that the tillers of the soil should assemble together and discuss the topics relating to their work; later still, some of the Agricultural Societies in the Middle Ages were of service in promoting more enlightened views of culture, rotation of crops, manures, etc. These societies received a new impulse in Continental Europe in the latter part of the eighteenth century, through the agricultural schools and writings of De Fellenberg, Vehrli, and Von Thaer. In our own country, Agricultural Societies have existed throughout the greater part of the present century, but comparatively few of the farmers have taken much interest in them, the greater part speaking disparagingly of "book farming." Agricultural fairs, under the auspices of State or County Agricultural Societies, have attracted a larger attendance; but these have degenerated for the last few years into horse-races with all their attendant evils, and the exhibitions of

blooded stock which have also formed a prominent feature of them, have been more conducive to the pride and profit of the wealthy stock-owner than to the advantage of the average farmer. The other minor associations of horticulturists, fruit-growers, vine-growers, stock-raisers, etc., etc., while they have attracted a certain number of specialists, and perhaps have done something in the way of improving fruits, flowers, vines, or stock, have not accomplished anything of much value for the great mass of tillers of the soil.

The Agricultural Department at Washington, though intended to benefit the farmers and promote their interests, has never been able to accomplish a tithe of the good hoped for by its founders, for a variety of causes which it is not our province here to discuss.

After the close of the civil war, agriculture in the Southern States was in a condition of great depression. Emancipation had broken up all the old-time traditions and conditions of planting and farming. The great class of field laborers, now free, looked often with distrust on their old masters, and were unwilling to labor for them, preferring at first a roving and easy life in or near the larger towns. The farmers and planters with little or no money were compelled to procure their labor on shares and receive advances on their crops before they were matured, almost before they were planted—a ruinous system, but inevitable at the time. The farmers in the West and Northwest had not so much reason to complain of scarcity of labor or its inefficiency; but most of them had settled upon new lands with insufficient capital, and they were heavily in debt, while the high freights on the railroads, and the extortions of the middlemen and speculators, so reduced the net prices of their products that they often did not receive the actual cost for them. Yet there was no union, no harmony of interests among them; each struggled on in his own way, selling in the cheapest and buying in the dearest market; and if there was any failure in the crop, compelled, perhaps, to borrow money at ruinous rates, and mortgage his farm as security, and in the end to give up the results of years of toil and begin anew still farther west.

Nor were the Middle States in much better condition. The wheat-growing States east of the Mississippi were diminishing year by year the amount of wheat to the acre, and farming was so

far unprofitable, that the farmers' sons abandoned the homesteads and sought employment in the cities.

There were scores, perhaps hundreds, of thoughtful men connected, directly or indirectly, with the farming interest, who knew these facts, and had puzzled their brains over and over again in the vain effort to devise some remedy for them. The Agricultural Department at Washington received with every mail the complaints of farmers from all sections, of the unprofitableness and hardships of farming life; and one of its officers, William Saunders, then superintendent of the gardens and conservatories of the department, a thoughtful Scotchman, highly educated, and possessed of that intense logical power which characterizes so many of his countrymen, had pondered much on this subject.

His position, combined with his knowledge of the sociological status of farmers, convinced him that they were suffering in their interests from their seeming apathy or unwillingness to take any active part in matters of political economy; while most of the other interests of the country were pressing forward to secure special recognition and attention, the farmer was at home minding his own business there, and was but little known in public. When, therefore, his friend, Mr. O. H. Kelley, proposed that some such organization among farmers as that of the Masonic Order would be advantageous in linking together as a party the cultivators of the soil, it was received as matter worthy of consideration. Mr. Kelley had previously mentioned the matter to others, but nothing had, so far, been accomplished. On due consideration of the idea, and after divesting it of all extraneous features, making it purely and simply an industrial organization, Mr. Saunders stated his conclusions, which had the effect of enlisting and consolidating the valuable advice and assistance of Messrs. Kelley, J. R. Thompson and Wm. M. Ireland, the two latter gentlemen being high and efficient officers in the Masonic Order; the Rev. A. B. Grosh, a prominent member and author in the Order of Odd-Fellows; and Rev. John Trimble, Jr. Together these gentlemen worked diligently and patiently for months, perfecting the Organization, Ritual, Constitution, By-laws, and general plans of the Order.

The earnest spirit and untiring zeal that accomplished so grand, so unique, and so perfect a work reflects the highest honors upon these originators of this Order.



WILLIAM SAUNDERS.

The first degree was completed on the 5th of August, 1867, and on the 12th of that month, Mr. Saunders being directed by the Agricultural Department to visit certain points in the North, West, and Southwest, on Department business, took this first degree with him, and called the attention of prominent agriculturists in Western New York, Ohio, and Missouri, to the proposed new Order. Several of these gentlemen took a deep interest in it, and afterwards became prominent members of the order. Among these were Messrs. A. S. Moss and F. M. McDowell, the former a leading agriculturist in Western New York, and the latter the present Treasurer of the National Grange. Mr. George D. Hinckley, present Master of the New York State Grange, was, we believe, also one of those with whom Mr. Saunders conversed at a later date; Mr. Anson Bartlett, of Ohio, afterward overseer of the National Grange; Mr. William Muir, of Missouri, one of the editors of the *Rural World*, and subsequently steward of the National Grange, and others, furnished to Mr. Saunders, either then or subsequently, valuable suggestions relative to the further development of the new Order.

It was deemed necessary to the permanency of the Order, and its effectiveness in protecting agricultural interests, that it should have the seal of secrecy in its initiatory ritual, and in such portions of its work as might be deemed desirable. Early in the history of the Order this was made a serious objection to it, but the founders replied, very sensibly, that all other trades and professions had their secrets, which were essential to their success, and that even the highest legislative bodies had their secret executive sessions. The object of the secret portions of the obligations, ritual, and work was pure and honorable, and no member was thereby compromised in any way in anything which he could not heartily approve, while all the experience of the past showed that this very secrecy was a stronger bond to unite the members of an order together, than any open pledge could be.

Suggestions were constantly coming in to Mr. Saunders during the autumn of 1867, from agriculturists in various parts of the country relative to the proposed Order; many of them of considerable importance and value; and encouraged by these, he and his coadjutors went forward in the preparation of the second, third, and fourth degrees.

The time had now come to decide upon a name for it—a matter of considerable difficulty—as of the forty or fifty proposed all were more or less objectionable. After long deliberation and conference the name PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY was finally adopted, and it was decided to give the name of GRANGE to the meetings of the Order, whether general or local. The propriety of the title “Patrons of Husbandry” admits of no question, the primary qualification for membership being that the party applying should be interested in husbandry. The title applied to the members in their collective capacity—“Grange”—has excited some discussion, but is, we think, equally appropriate. It is an old English word, used by all the poets from Spenser to Tennyson, and by most of the dramatists and prose-writers. Derived from the Latin *granum* through the Law Latin *grangia*, the Spanish and Portuguese *granga*, and the French *grange*, its primary signification is a barn, or rather a granary; but in Shakespeare’s time, and perhaps earlier, it had come to signify an isolated farm-house, as his “There at the moated grange resides this dejected Mariana,” in *Measure for Measure*, shows. It is used in this sense now among the landholders of Great Britain, the term being generally applied to the better class of tenant farm-houses. The hall in which the “Grange” (in our signification of the word) meets is known as the Grange-room.

This important question of a name being thus happily decided, and all the degrees being completed, Mr. Saunders and his friends were ready for an organization of the new Order.

On the evening of the 4th of December, 1867, at the office of Mr. Saunders, then on Four-and-a-half Street, between Missouri Avenue and the old canal, there were assembled less than ten persons, and there and then the NATIONAL GRANGE was organized, and the following officers elected for five years:—William Saunders, Dist. Col., Master; J. R. Thompson, Vt., Lecturer; Anson Bartlett, Ohio, Overseer; William Muir, Mo., Steward; A. S. Moss, N. Y., Assistant Steward; Rev. A. B. Grosh, Pa., Chaplain; William M. Ireland, Pa., Treasurer; O. H. Kelley, Minn., Secretary; Edward P. Faris, Ill., Gate-keeper. At this meeting no lady officers were elected, although provision had been made for them in the constitution, but at a subsequent meeting the four officers, Ceres, Pomona, Flora, and the

Lady Assistant Steward, were elected, as well as the Executive Committee.

Soon after a subordinate Grange was established in Washington, which soon numbered about sixty members. This was made the school of instruction for the Order, and in it the efficiency of the ritual was tested.

As Master of the National Grange, Mr. Saunders issued, about the 1st of January, 1868, a circular which was distributed as widely as possible among agriculturists, explaining very clearly and forcibly the considerations which had led to the formation of the Order, and its purposes and aims. This circular is so important, not only as a part and parcel of the History of the Order, but for its almost prophetic insight of what it was to accomplish, that we deem it desirable to give it in full.

MR. SAUNDERS' CIRCULAR.

PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY, NATIONAL GRANGE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

*Vis unita fortior.**

We solicit attention to an organization now being established for the purpose of increasing the general happiness, wealth, and prosperity of the country. It is based upon the axioms that the products of the soil comprise the basis of all wealth; that individual happiness depends, in a great degree, upon general prosperity, and that the wealth of a country depends upon the general intelligence and mental culture of the producing classes. The best mode of securing a diffusion of knowledge, with a view to its application to the increase of the products of the soil, is, therefore, one of the most important questions that can be propounded, and we hope greatly to facilitate its solution by the results that will follow the work of the organization to which we allude, and concerning which we take the liberty of asking you to favor us with your considerate opinion, suggestions, and advice. All existing popular modes of creating an interest in agricultural and

* Motto since adopted—*Esto Perpetua*.

kindred pursuits have been carefully scanned and studied. Agricultural fairs enlist attention, and to a certain extent, excite competition, but it is becoming a matter of history that these associations are gradually losing their influence; the novelty and excitement of horse-racing, and other scenes still less commendable, are looked upon as essential to their success, if not to their very existence. Clubs for mutual instruction and friendly interchange of ideas seem to lose their interest as soon as the first excitement of organization is passed. Even fruit-growers' societies, with all their attractions, only enlist a few enthusiasts, whose efforts are scarcely felt by the great producing masses of the country. The incentive to the formation of these societies, results from a recognition of the well-known principle, that *unity of action* is necessary to secure success; but to encourage and maintain progressive success, this unity must be made solid and permanent, not trivial and spasmodic, and from a preponderance of the latter, we may trace the main cause of failures in these organizations.

On the other hand, when we reflect upon the fact that certain associations have stood the test of ages and even centuries, as, for example, the Masonic Order, and the interest and the objects of their nurture, constantly increasing instead of diminishing, we may well pause and ask: In what does their permanency consist? We can only find one satisfactory answer to this question, and that is their secrecy. If, then, this is the great element of eminent success, why not embrace it in associations for the spread and increase of knowledge, and for the noble purpose of adding to national wealth and power? If this simple principle is the keystone of a permanent foundation, why not secure it? If such a slender thread as a secret or exclusive ceremony of initiation before membership can be secured will bind a society, then let us adopt *that* mode of forming the farming community into bodies, where they will have a tangible existence, where unity of action can be enforced by discipline, and where discipline can be secured by significant organization.

Reflections similar to the above have resulted in the formation of an Order known as the PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY. A constitution for the guidance of the Order has been prepared; four initiatory degrees, representing the four seasons, have also been

completed, and they contain the novel beauty and secrecy that will make the society "ever budding, ever new."

Women are admitted, as well as young persons of both sexes over the ages of sixteen and eighteen years respectively; it is hoped, by this means, a love for rural life will be encouraged, the desire for excitement and amusement, so prevalent in youth, will be gratified instead of being repressed; not, however, in frivolities as useless for the future as they are for the present, but by directing attention to the wonder-workings of nature, and leading the mind to enjoy and appreciate that never-ending delight which follows these studies, whether pursued in the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdoms.

Young men are constantly being attracted to the cities from the country, leaving behind them one of the most certain sources of comfortable competence for that of precarious competition in channels already overflowing. There are undoubtedly good and sufficient reasons for this migratory tendency, and a want of attractions for the mind—something beyond the exercise resulting from mere mechanical employment—is one of the chief.

We solicit the co-operation of woman, because of a conviction that without her aid success will be less certain and decided. Much might be said in this connection, but every husband and brother knows that where he can be accompanied by his wife or sister, no lessons will be learned but those of purity and truth.

With regard to the modes of education, mention may be made of mutual instruction through the reading of essays; and discussions, lectures, formation of select libraries; circulation of magazines and other publications treating directly upon the main subjects desired, namely, those inculcating the principles governing our operations in the field, orchard, and garden. It may be remarked, that all of these measures are now in existence, so that their introduction is neither new nor novel; to this we answer, that their direct application under a comprehensive and controlling principle is both new and novel, and one that has not previously been employed for the same objects.

It is gratifying to know that the agricultural and horticultural press has never faltered, and if success had been at all commensurate with the zeal and ability displayed in its management, the country would, at this hour, be wealthier and happier. It is

not one of the least of our hopes to be able to extend this influence, and open up a wider field for its usefulness.

The novelty of this organization, and the manner it proposes of introducing a system of special education, has hitherto prevented the originators from publicly calling attention to the work; they have, so far, only asked the advice of personal friends, but the great favor with which it has been received prompts to a bolder action, satisfied that the noble purposes to which the Order is dedicated will command the serious attention of all.

We ignore all political or religious discussions in the order; we do not solicit the patronage of any sect, association, or individual, upon any grounds whatever, except upon the intrinsic merits of the Order. It needs no such patronage, and would not be what it is if it did. Address:

SECRETARY NATIONAL GRANGE,

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Condition of the Order at this Period.

The organization was now in working order, and Mr. Saunders and his associates having announced to the agriculturists of the nation its inauguration, and having explained its objects, aims, and beneficent purposes, awaited with some anxiety the response of the farmers and planters to their appeal. December, January, February, and most of March, had passed, but no answer came, or, at least, none which could be considered hopeful. Was this to be the final result of their toil and anxiety? Were the farmers so thoroughly content with their condition that they did not desire any measures of relief? Had all their complaints been made merely from the love of grumbling? So it would have seemed to an indifferent and superficial observer; but the convictions of Messrs. Saunders, Thompson, and Kelley, and their associates, were too deep to permit them to entertain any such idea. Yet if they continued to wait, without active exertions there was great danger that all their past labors would prove useless; that the

new Order would die in its cradle. None of the founders of the Order were rich ; most of those in Washington were clerks in the departments, whose salaries were barely adequate to their support, or if they had any property elsewhere, it was a little farm in a distant State, or a house and lot in some remote town. But if their worldly goods were thus moderate in amount, had they a wide national reputation and influence which would answer in its place to win men to enter the new Order? Alas, no ! Mr. Saunders was, as we have said, a man of fine culture and extensive reading, and well versed in the science of agriculture, but aside from the more intelligent agriculturists and horticulturists, the public knew less of his merits than they ought ; Messrs. Thompson and Kelley were likewise unknown to the great body ✓ of agriculturists ; Rev. Mr. Grosh had gained some reputation by his works on Odd-Fellowship, but that was of little avail in bringing men into this Order ; and the officers who did not reside in Washington, though some of them men of fine minds and of considerable influence, could not render them any material assistance. Even the printing of their constitution, manual, and circulars, and the distribution of the latter, had brought them in debt about \$150, and as yet there was only the National Grange and one subordinate one.

But these courageous men had faith in their enterprise, and faith is the power that wins in the end. With a courage that seems to us sublime, Mr. Kelley determined to resign his office in the Post-Office Department, and go forth to propagate the New Order among the farmers of the country. The National Grange ✓ voted him a salary of \$2,000, provided he could make it from his fees in organizing Granges—a very safe proviso ; but it was all they could do, for they were already in debt. Mr. Saunders had personally a faith in the Order as strong as that of Mr. Kelley, and though he had little to spare, he assisted in fitting out his friend with a railway ticket for Harrisburg (his first destination), and letters of credit to his own friends ; and as he bid him adieu, authorized him, in case of failure to realize the necessary means for his expenses from his fees, to call on him for what he needed. One hardly knows in such a case which most to admire—the courage which prompted to this active effort, giving up a certainty for it—or the self-sacrifice which, calmly counting the cost, pledges

itself from a limited and narrow income to sustain a comrade even to the point of personal privation. Both are deserving of the highest honor. Subsequently, Thomas B. Bryan, Esq., of Chicago, a personal friend of Mr. Saunders, furnished, on his representations, funds for these itinerating expenses, and for publications in the early days of the Order. When a more prosperous time came, this money was ordered to be refunded, but Mr. Bryan magnanimously donated it to the Order.

But to return to Mr. Kelley's mission. He left Washington for Harrisburg April 1st, 1868, with his letters of introduction, his railway ticket, and the sum of \$2.50 in his pocket. At Harrisburg he issued a Dispensation for a Grange. Going northward and westward he reached Fredonia, N. Y., where, through the influence of Mr. George D. Hinckley, a second Grange was established; at Columbus, O., a third was organized, but proved a failure. A fourth Dispensation was issued for Chicago, Messrs. Corbett & Emery, of the *Prairie Farmer*, being active promoters of that Grange. Mr. Kelley had everywhere on his route talked with farmers, and endeavored to interest them in the new movement, but had met with little success. They had been so often duped by plausible and designing men, and had found themselves swindled by trusting to their representations to such an extent, that they were afraid of any "new-fangled notion," and hence regarded Mr. Kelley's appeals either with hostility or indifference. Mr. Kelley arrived in Minnesota about the 1st of May, having organized four Granges. In that State, in the course of the summer, he issued Dispensations for six more. One of these was the North Star Grange of St. Paul, Minnesota—one of the most efficient and active Granges in the country. Convinced that the farmers were not yet quite ready for the Order, he remained on his farm in Minnesota for about two years and a half, talking about the new Order wherever he found an opportunity, and organizing Granges wherever he succeeded in creating an interest in the subject. He also attended during these years the annual meetings of the National Grange at Washington. But though he was indefatigable in his labors, and his associates at Washington were equally in earnest, the progress of the Order was exceedingly slow in those years. Among the great body of agriculturists it was looked upon with

distrust, and regarded as a humbug. Its feature of secrecy was strongly denounced. Farmers, it was said, had no occasion for concealment; their life and actions should all be as open as the day. The editors of agricultural papers were urged to present the purposes and plans of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry to their readers, but the answer almost invariably was, "It will injure our advertising patronage, and we cannot afford to do it." Thus thwarted and rebuffed on all sides, it seemed as if the world would never know the loving purposes and kindly intentions of its greatest benefactors. Yet in the second and third years of its existence there began to appear indications that it was taking root in the minds of the more intelligent agriculturists in different sections of the country. In Iowa, Mr. Dudley W. Adams, present Worthy Master of the National Grange, came into the Order in 1870, and in the following year became Master of the Iowa State Grange. Earnest and eloquent, and thoroughly devoted to the advancement of agriculture, he soon gave it a new impulse in that great State; and such was his influence in its favor, not only in his own State, but in adjacent ones, that in February, 1873, Mr. Saunders peremptorily declining a re-election as Master of the National Grange, from the feeling that it was becoming that the founders of the Order should demonstrate to the country that they were laboring for the general good and not for self-glorification, Mr. Adams was elected by the Grange as his successor in that high office. As, however, the members of the National Grange felt that they could not dispense with Mr. Saunders' services and counsels, he was elected Chairman of the Executive Committee of the National Grange, and reluctantly consented to serve in that important position.

Mr. T. A. Thompson, the present Worthy Lecturer of the National Grange, came into the Order in February, 1870. He was a native of Ohio, but had resided in Minnesota for some years, where he was a farmer and Superintendent of Public Schools. He was brought in by Mr. Kelley's efforts, and was at once elected Master of the Grange in his own town, and in February, 1871, elected Master of the State Grange of Minnesota—and in February, 1873, Lecturer of the National Grange. It should be noted here, as an evidence of Mr. Kelley's indomitable perseverance and push, that Minnesota had the first State Grange in the country.

In other sections, too, there were indications of progress. In South Carolina, Col. D. Wyatt Aiken, a planter of Cokesbury, S. C., the present Worthy Secretary of the South Carolina Grange, and one of the Executive Committee of the National Grange, came into the Order, and possessing rare organizing ability, and great enthusiasm in the cause, he soon created a strong current of public opinion in its favor in South Carolina, Georgia, and North Carolina. Others were inquiring into the subject in other States.

Yet the fact remains, that in January, 1871, when Mr. Kelley decided to give up his farm in Minnesota and remove to Washington, and devote himself to his duties as Secretary of the National Grange, there were but eighty-seven or eighty-eight subordinate Granges, and not more than three State Granges in existence. During 1868, as we have said, there were but eleven Granges established; in 1869 there were thirty-nine; in 1870, thirty-eight; in 1871, one hundred and twenty-five. This decided increase in that year was due mainly to these causes: the diffusion of information in regard to the Order by the officers at Washington, and by the untiring efforts of Messrs. Kelley, Adams, T. A. Thompson, Aiken, and others; the greater popularity in the late summer and autumn of that year of the secret work, revised by Mr. T. A. Thompson, and then adopted by the Executive Committee; the prevalent feeling among the farmers in the Northwest, that they must in some way be relieved from the heavy burdens of exorbitant transportation charges, low prices for grain and other farm products, and enormous prices for farm machinery and whatever they had to purchase. These considerations, and the positive relief which it offered to farmers, both in the West and South, from the evils under which they suffered, led to a more rapid growth of the Order from that time forward.

In any event the Rubicon was passed, and the shrewdness and foresight of Mr. Kelley in removing to Washington was justified. From the beginning of 1872 the progress of the Order has been exceedingly rapid, each month exhibiting an accelerating rate of increase. In 1872, one thousand one hundred and sixty new Granges were established; in 1873, eight thousand six hundred; and in the first two months of 1874, four thousand seven hundred and eighteen. There are at the present time (May, 1874) nearly



O. H. KELLEY.

eighteen thousand Granges in existence, with a membership of over 1,500,000.

After Mr. Kelley's return to Washington in January, 1871, the office was opened there, but in 1872 removed to Georgetown, D. C., to obtain more commodious quarters. In 1873 the offices of the National Grange were permanently established in Washington, on Louisiana Avenue, just above the Pension Office.

With some brief notices of a few of the leading men of the Order, we will conclude this history of its origin and progress.

WILLIAM SAUNDERS.

Of Mr. SAUNDERS but little more need be said. He is, *par excellence*, the founder of the Order. To his clear perceptions, his extensive literary and scientific culture, and his sturdy strong common-sense, it owes those features which have made it so acceptable to all who have investigated its history and principles. His deliberate but sound judgment, his wisdom and faithfulness in council, his thorough devotion to the interests of the Order, his remarkable foresight in comprehending its possibilities in the future, and his unimpeachable integrity, have won for him the confidence of the Patrons of Husbandry all over the country.

O. H. KELLEY.

Of Mr. KELLEY, also, there is no need of saying more than this: that to his indomitable energy and perseverance is largely due the success of the Order in the Northwest. Hoping almost against hope, and toiling as if for life, against numberless obstacles and difficulties, he has found the great Hungarian's saying true, "There is no cannot to him who wills;" and in the thronging applications for Dispensations for new Granges, which keep pen, heart, and brain busy, he sees the ample recompense for those years of labor, which seemed at the time to be wholly wasted.

DUDLEY W. ADAMS.

Mr. DUDLEY W. ADAMS, present Worthy Master of the National Grange, is a man eminently adapted for his exalted position—a man of calm, clear, cool brain, of sound judgment, and excellent capacity for reasoning, devoted to the best interests of the Order and of agriculture, a dignified and able presiding officer, and one

well qualified to hold the balance amid conflicting opinions and interests. A hasty, hot-headed man in such a position would speedily involve the Order in inextricable difficulties, but Mr. Adams is always calm and self-possessed, and on the most trying occasions sees his way clearly.

COL. D. WYATT AIKEN.

Col. D. WYATT AIKEN, Worthy Secretary of the S. C. State Grange, and the second member of the Executive Committee of the National Grange (Mr. Saunders being the first), is an organizing officer of great ability. He became a member of the Order in its infancy, and it is due almost solely to his untiring zeal that South Carolina has now more than 400 subordinate Granges, while his energy and dash have been equally rewarded in the States of North Carolina and Georgia. These numerous Granges, though organized so rapidly, are not gatherings of the floating population, but are composed of the most intelligent and substantial planters and farmers of the States we have named. The success which has attended his efforts to establish Granges is largely the result of his admirable tact in meeting all prejudices, and in putting before the people of the South the great advantages which their shattered and demoralized agricultural interests would derive from participating in the benefits conferred by the Order. On several occasions, at the close of one of his eloquent addresses, he has organized several Granges, and at one time six or seven, for as many districts or settlements. Col. Aiken is a valuable accession to the National Executive Committee, bringing to it, as he does, a grand and generous enthusiasm, a zeal tempered by discretion, and a great capacity for work.

T. A. THOMPSON.

We have already spoken of Mr. T. A. THOMPSON, former Master of the Minnesota State Grange, and present Worthy Lecturer of the National Grange. Since his connection with the Order, which began in February, 1870, Mr. Thompson has been zealously engaged in promoting its interests. His revision of the secret or unwritten work, undertaken at the instance of the Executive Committee of the National Grange, and accepted by them in August, 1871, gave to the Order a fresh impulse, and aided

materially in stimulating its subsequent rapid growth. So thorough was his comprehension of the grand and beneficent mission of the Order, and so quick his intuitions of the best methods and the right men for promoting its growth, that it was deemed desirable to call him to a wider sphere of action, and at the meeting of the National Grange in February, 1873, he was elected Lecturer of the National Grange, the principal organizing officer and instructor of the Order. He could not enter fully upon his duties till July, 1873, but in the next nine months he had visited twenty-five or twenty-six States, and had organized State Granges in many of them. He is a winning speaker, and his clear understanding of the aims, purposes, and beneficent character of the Order lends a simple but effective grace to his speeches, and makes them remarkably successful.

GEORGE D. HINCKLEY.

Mr. GEORGE D. HINCKLEY, the present Worthy Master of the New York State Grange, was, as we have said, one of the earliest members of the Order, having been inducted by Mr. Kelley in his journey in the fall of 1868. Mr. Hinckley is a man of broad and comprehensive views, of sterling integrity, popular, and every way well qualified to carry forward this great movement in a State like New York.

COL. RICHARD D. POWELL.

Col. RICHARD D. POWELL, of Columbus, Miss., one of the Deputies of the National Grange, and Worthy Chaplain of the Mississippi State Grange, though a veteran in age, having entered upon his seventy-fifth year, is not behind any of his brethren in his zeal and efficiency in promoting the best and highest objects of the Order. He has long been a leading agriculturist in that State, and a hearty friend to every measure which would promote the interests of planters and farmers; and embracing the earliest opportunity of becoming a Patron, he has put to shame many of the younger men of the Order by his activity and perseverance in organizing Granges throughout the State. Mississippi has now over six hundred Granges.

There are others, some of them officers of the National Grange, others at the head of State Granges, who deserve a place in this,

record for their zeal and activity, as well as for their abundant labors; but time and space are wanting to do full justice to the host of worthies whom we hope elsewhere more fully to commemorate. Still others, nameless in our present record, yet deserve their meed of praise—those deputies and lecturers who, at an early period in the history of the Order, went out into the several States in which the Order has since most largely flourished, “amid darkness and discouragement; in spite of opposition, misconstruction, suspicion, and reproach; with brave hearts, steady hands, and unbending purpose, and with the most unwavering devotion to fidelity and truth, immortalized their efforts and crowned them with triumph. They have borne the banner of the Order among resolute foes, and friends too timid to lend a helping hand, until they planted it on all the high places of the land, where now, in the day of its power, the great and honored among the people assemble to accord it reverence, and to hail it as the emblem of the deliverance of labor from oppression.”

We add here, as a part of the history of the Order and a remarkable forecast of its plans and its future, an

ADDRESS DELIVERED BY WILLIAM SAUNDERS, MASTER OF THE NATIONAL GRANGE, PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY, AT THE CLOSE OF THE THIRD ANNUAL SESSION, FEBRUARY 4TH, 1870.

Patrons.:—Before closing this meeting, it seems to me expedient to briefly recapitulate some of the most important objects of the Order, and its aims as a society.

To increase the products of the earth by increasing the knowledge of the producer, is the basis of our structure; to learn and apply the revelations of science, so far as relates to the various products of the vegetable kingdom, and to diffuse the truths and general principles of the science and art of agriculture, are ultimate objects of our organization. We freely avail ourselves of the valuable results of scientific investigations in establishing principles (which, although sometimes difficult of discovery, are generally of easy application when properly understood), and seek to disseminate knowledge upon every subject that bears upon the increase of the productions and wealth of the nation.

One of the first duties of every Grange is to form a good library. This should be well supplied with elementary works in the various branches of natural history, standard works on agriculture, horticulture, pomology, physiology, rural architecture, landscape gardening, breeding and raising of live-stock, and those of similar import. It is suggested that treatises on principles and fundamental laws should have special preference. The practices, more varied in their details, will be found from time to time in the periodicals devoted to these subjects.

The social relaxation from every-day duties and toils, inculcated and encouraged by the Order, is keenly appreciated by its members. The barriers to social intercourse, that are thrown around society by despotic fashion, are ruthlessly thrown down and trodden under foot, and we meet on a common footing, with the common object in view of receiving and contributing the highest enjoyments of civilized society.

To make country homes and country society attractive, refined, and enjoyable; to balance exhaustive labors by instructive social amusements and accomplishments, is part of our mission and our aim.

The admission of women to full membership, and their assistance in the workings of the Order, is proving of incalculable value; it is indeed doubtful whether the objects of the institution, especially in regard to the refinements of education, and all that tends to brighten hearths and enliven homes, could have been accomplished without their presence and aid.

In establishing an organization of this kind, we must not allow our energies to relax by any apparent indifference, or even avowed hostility to our cause. This we must expect, as there is no popular movement exempt from opposition. There is always a class of doubters who predict failures, others misconstrue motives, and still others who freely give opinions without investigating as to the objects sought to be attained, or the methods by which they are to be accomplished.

The secret ceremony of initiation of members has, as was anticipated, been objected to by a few persons; but we are already well convinced that the efficient discipline necessary to secure permanent organization could not be attained by any other means, thus completely realizing the only object that suggested its adoption, and it meets the warm approval of all those who have experienced the transitory existence of rural clubs and societies, and who recognize in our simple but efficient rules, elements of success, based upon a solid and lasting foundation.

It is gratifying to know that wherever our motives and objects have been explained and clearly understood, we meet with support. The times were auspicious for the introduction of this Order. The change of events, which allowed the minds of the people to subside from the bustle and all-absorbing interests of war, to the calm and prosperity of peace, called for new organizations, based upon the industrial arts rather than upon political theories; a basis that appeals to the patriotism and sensibilities of every cultivated and right-minded individual.

The many advantages that naturally flow from a society of this kind need not be enumerated, even were it practicable to do so. Suggestions of great moment are constantly being presented, and accumulate in a degree beyond all expectation at so early a date in our history. Not the least of these is that of coöperation in every branch of rural economy, valuable alike to the producer and the consumer. This is a subject of great moment, and one requiring, as it is receiving, careful and cautious consideration; so that while members of the Order are protected, the rights of others will not be infringed, but that all will be benefited.

In conclusion, I may remark that we have every incentive to encourage us in the prosecution of this work. We cannot do otherwise

than to go on prospering and to prosper, for whatever may take place in modes of government, or changes occur in the artificial tastes of society, one thing is certain, that our greatest dependence will ever be upon the productions of the soil, and the educated cultivator possesses the knowledge upon which is reared the structure of national wealth and national character.

Objects, Purposes, and Characteristic Features of the Order.

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF A GRANGE.

This remarkable and interesting circular of Mr. Saunders, which we have given in full, conveys a general idea of the objects of the Order, but it is necessary to go a little more fully into particulars, and to show by the practical working of the Order that it has accomplished all and more than its Worthy Past Master predicted for it in 1867. We have nowhere seen a more satisfactory account of these results, as attained by the Western Granges, than that given by the intelligent and accomplished correspondent of the *New York Tribune*, himself a Patron, in connection with his tour of exploration among the Western Granges, in the summer and autumn of 1873. From this statement we make extracts:

SOCIAL OBJECTS OF THE GRANGE.

For admission to the Order of the Patrons of Husbandry, the only qualifications required, beyond that of suitable age, are that the candidate shall be interested in husbandry, or the wife, sister, or daughter of one who is thus interested, and shall be of good moral character, though each Grange retains the right to reject any candidate whose name is presented, without making explanation. The expenses of the Order are light—the initiation fee for men is five dollars and for women two dollars, and the monthly dues only a few cents.

The first object of the Grange is to afford its members an opportunity ✓ for social, intellectual, and moral improvement. No class in the community is so greatly in need of an organization to draw them away, occasionally, from the hum-drum drudgery of their daily duties, and to bring them into contact with each other, as the farmers. Dwelling

apart, each family by itself, they have none of the excitements that make city life attractive, and are apt to become more and more rusty in mind as increasing cares grow upon them. Amusements and holidays are almost unknown. Those religiously inclined find a mild excitement in a weekly attendance at church; those not so, may spend the Sunday in lazy lounging or in hunting or fishing. The county fair occurs on a red-letter day in the farmers' calendar, and a wedding or a funeral marks an epoch in their lives. The life of the farmer's wife is even less attractive: time was when young American women born and bred in the country were glad to "go out to do housework," and a woman's "help" in the house was intelligent and capable. That time has passed: intelligent American girls, if their services are not needed at home, and they are obliged wholly or partially to earn their own living, become teachers or seek employment in the cities and villages, while the only household "help" that can be obtained is of the raw Irish or German variety, which requires a generation in which to be educated, and which, when educated, ceases to be obtainable. The farmer's wife, therefore, though she may be able and willing to pay for good assistance, cannot get it, and is obliged to make a slave of herself, working from sunrise to sunset through the long summer days until nature itself fairly gives way. This is no exaggeration; it can be seen in the haggard looks, and heard in the weary sighs of overworked farmers' wives in the East and in the West. There are broad acres of highly cultivated land groaning under the abundant crops, good houses and barns, fine stock and money to the farmer's credit in the bank; but the order and cleanliness that reigned in-doors in harvest time, when twenty hungry men sat around the farmer's board, as well as when the family only were there, were too often purchased at the price of the premature old age of the wife. Anything that will break in upon this treadmill life, which, though not quite universal, is altogether too common, should be hailed with joy by the farmer and his family.

And this is what the Grange aims to do. Once in two weeks (sometimes every week) its members meet in some convenient hall which they either hire or own, each family bringing its basket of food. Many hands make light work; cooking utensils, dishes and tables are owned by the Grange; a bountiful feast is soon prepared, and the afternoon is spent in social pleasures or in discussions upon subjects in which they are mutually interested. Who can doubt that an occasional breaking away from work by the farmer and his family, even though he should get no new ideas, will improve them all in health and make them better able to perform their routine of duties?

But the Grange strives directly to make better farmers, and of this there is certainly need. Many of the agriculturists of the West and Northwest left Eastern farms, where high cultivation and intelligent management were necessary to insure a living; and if they were fair farmers there, they have generally been abundantly successful in the West. But there is a large class of men who have gone upon the wild lands of the West—Irish, German, Scandinavian immigrants—gathered in Europe by railroad and emigration agents—whose knowledge of agriculture is of the most limited kind, and who have everything against them but the strength of their arms, their ability to endure privation, and the wonderful fertility of the soil when its tough sod has once been broken. They put lots of muscle into their business, but very little brains. Nor are all of the bad farmers of the West of foreign birth. Thousands of men reared in cities have been induced, by the promise of cheap land and rich crops, to forsake the life in which they were reared, for the reaper and the plough. Some of these men have done well, others have naturally failed. Another fact to be noticed is that the very men who are most in need of advice, such as a good Agricultural Journal would give them, are the ones who don't take it—probably their failure to read such a paper explains their need of it. To all farmers, good or bad, the Grange offers opportunities of improvement never before within the reach of the country people, except in farmers' clubs, and in them only to a limited extent. Experienced, successful men tell in the Grange-room how they have made good crops or why they failed to do so; agricultural newspapers are taken, read, and exchanged; important advice is given to young and inexperienced farmers; and each member, no matter how well he understands his business, is sure to obtain some item of useful information.

The Grange teaches the farmer to contract habits of thrift and economy. The man who buys on credit always buys in the highest market, and of no class in the community is this remark more strikingly true than of the farmers. It is no uncommon thing for a bill at the village store to make a veritable slave of a farmer. A partial failure of his crops, sickness in his family, or other unforeseen occurrence, makes it impossible for him to settle when pay-day comes around, and a mortgage on his farm, at 15 per cent. interest, is the result. Other men may offer to sell goods to him cheaper, but it may be impossible for him to transfer his trade when such transfer might involve a foreclosure of a mortgage. The Grange advises all of its members to buy and sell for cash, and to demand such favors as cash purchasers are justly entitled to. If ten per cent. of a man's sales on credit become bad debts,

the increase in prices to make up for this loss ought to be charged against those who buy on credit, and not against those who buy for cash, and on whose purchases there is, therefore, no risk. The Grange also assists its members to get down to a cash basis, by making contracts with local dealers to allow a discount to Grangers who pay on the spot for their purchases, by making extensive contracts to purchase agricultural implements, sewing-machines, etc., at wholesale, from the manufacturers, and in a few cases by lending money at low rates of interest to enable the farmers to take advantage of these arrangements.

The Grange teaches its members to be thrifty, intelligent, and economical. By this it is not meant that it teaches them to pinch and starve themselves, or to deny themselves the comforts, or even the luxuries, of life. On the other hand, it shows them how to acquire the means to gratify their finer tastes. Instead of leaving his plough in the last furrow, to rust and rot through the long season and wear out in four years, when it ought to last six, the Grange teaches the farmer to put it under cover, and so save enough to pay for the subscription to a good newspaper or magazine, or to purchase a good book. Instead of allowing his wheat to lie in the shock and sprout before it is thrashed, the Grange tells the farmer that its value will be increased several cents on a bushel if he carefully stacks it. It shows the careless, thriftless farmer the secret of his more successful neighbor's success, and gives him a helping hand to make that secret of practical value.

The Grange hopes to bring the producer and the consumer nearer together by dispensing, as much as possible, with the services of middlemen. The Order makes no war upon middlemen; it recognizes the service they render in facilitating the exchange of commodities; but they propose, wherever it is possible, to deal directly with the consumers of their crops. For this purpose, they have already established agencies in New York and Chicago, and have made direct shipments of provisions from the West to South Carolina planters. In every case the buyer and seller have both profited. In some places the Grange owns elevators.

The Grange makes no war upon railroads as such. Its members generally recognize the fact that without railroads their rich farms would soon be deserted except along the rivers, and become once more the homes of wolves and wild-fowl, and they are willing that men who put their money into railroads shall receive fair returns on the capital they invest. But they believe that the people have some rights which even railroad corporations are bound to respect, and they are not willing that railroad charges shall be put so high as to pay ten per cent. on

stock which the present owners never paid anything for, nor on stock that has been issued as a dividend. Many of the roads have been partially built with money subscribed by the farmers themselves, or by the towns and counties through which they extend, and the people are unwilling that men who have since got possession of these roads, often by the payment of comparatively little money, shall make large dividends until they have low rates. Above all, they are unwilling that the price of their crops shall be fixed by a ring of railroad men.

The remedy proposed is different in almost every State. Some propose a pro-rata law; some desire a fixed rate of maximum tariffs for freight and passengers; some desire that the question shall be regulated by the State, and some by the United States. In some States the present controversy is over the power of the Legislatures to control the railroads; in others that power is conceded either in the charters of the companies or the constitutions of the States, and then the question is, *how* shall the power be exercised? Some hold that the right of eminent domain exercised by a State in condemning private property for the use of railroads is a right pertaining only to the State in its sovereign capacity, and one of which it cannot in any way divest itself. Railroad property, they say, is no more sacred or exempt from the exercise of this right, when the interests of the people demand it, than any other. Should a railroad company now existing, therefore, become so oppressive in its charges as to make it for the public interest that a new company should be formed under greater restrictions, the State has the power to charter a new company to operate a road over the same line, and, in its exercise of the right of eminent domain, to appoint a commission to appraise and condemn the property belonging to the old company. Nowhere are violent or illegal measures proposed. No tracks have been torn up, no buildings burned; the motto of the Grange is, equal justice to all; and as the farmers have the power, by united action, to carry any measure they propose, they feel confident of ultimate success.

The Grange is not a political organization; politics and religion are forbidden topics of discussion in the Grange-room. It strives to educate men to think for themselves, and not to follow the dictates of party leaders and packed caucuses, unless their own judgment approves. But the Grange makes the farmers a power within themselves and outside of any political party; and now, in the States where they are strongest, should they step out of the ranks of the parties with which they have heretofore acted, it would not be necessary for them to seek shelter in the ~~camp~~ of their long-time political enemies. They might leave the old

ship that served them so long and bore them safely through so many a glorious fight, but which is now strained and worm-eaten, not to go on board some other equally unseaworthy, but to launch a new one of their own. How wisely they may build remains yet to be seen. Just now, the influence of the Grange is little more than to loosen the bands that bind men to old parties, and to make them free to choose their future places.

The Grange, although organized several years ago, did not become a formidable body until within the past two years. Immense crops of corn which had to be sold for less than the cost of production; short crops of wheat, with no corresponding increase of price; railroad combinations to prevent competition and reasonable rates of freight; wheat and corn rings, formed to control the price along many of the great railroad lines, and to prevent the farmers from receiving any advantage from favorable markets; the insatiable greed of some implement makers and agents; the accumulating mortgages on farms—these and many other circumstances have at length aroused the long-suffering farmers, and the Grange, already instituted, gave them the means to make their demands effective. This explains the astonishing growth of the Order since October, 1872.

The only omission with which we can charge this lucid and admirable *exposé* of the purposes and aims of the Western Granges is, that the writer has neglected to speak with any definiteness of the social and moral features of the Grange, and especially of the participation of women in its work and enjoyment. This is to our minds the most admirable feature in its plan of exercises. It does not take woman out of her proper sphere, it does not encourage political aspirations among women, or give license to the "strong-minded;" but it makes woman the companion, friend, and associate of man; it enables her to exert her refining and improving influence over him; and in the pleasant social enjoyments of the Grange-room, with its library, its piano, or cabinet organ, its sweet songs, and its interesting discussions, her own mind is enlarged and cultivated, and she is no longer the household drudge and slave, but the helper and good genius of her husband, brother, or son.

The influence of this commingling of the sexes is still more beneficial to the stronger sex. It has passed into a proverb that farmers' sons tire of the drudgery of the farm, and seek almost

invariably some other, and too often, some less reputable calling, which promises an easier life. But in these social gatherings there is a bond which draws the young farmer to an agricultural life. It is surrounded with new charms, new facilities for culture, new sources of enjoyment, and he no longer yearns for city life and its dissipating and corrupting influences. The farmer of more mature age finds also far more enjoyment in these social meetings of the Grange than in his farmers' club, if he were a member of one, or in his tavern or ale-house haunt, to which he had resorted to get away from the humdrum life of his cheerless home.

In connection with this opening of the Grange and some of its official positions to woman, there have grown up in the Western and some of the Southwestern Granges two features, which greatly enhance its social character, and make it far more attractive than any similar organization has ever been, viz. :

1. *The Festival or Picnic Days*, to which allusion has already been made—occasions when neighbors learn to know and love each other, and the consciousness not only of present enjoyment, but of a common purpose and aim, gives them a feeling of kinship; and, while it delights all, elevates and cultivates the intellect, and improves the heart.

2. *The Family Day*.—At certain times, usually once a month, or once in two months, in the Granges of the Northwest, the members of the Granges assemble at their hall, bringing with them their wives, who are usually also members, and their children, the younger as well as the older, babies, little, wee, toddling things, and the stout and boisterous four-year-old, as well as the older boys and girls. There are no grave discussions of Grange topics on these days, no formalities of the ritual or field work; but every farmer and farmer's wife has a basket of provisions, and the tables of the Grange-room are presently spread with a bountiful feast, to which the children sit down first, and when they have been satisfied, the older children in turn wait upon their parents. Songs, Recitations, Plays, Puzzles, Charades, and often dancing some simple country-dance, in which parents and children join, where blunders and false steps only increase the merriment, close a very enjoyable day.

One of the circulars of the National Grange speaks of the festivals and picnics, as well as of the other social exercises of the Order,

in these words:—"One of the pleasant social features of the Granges is the feasts provided by the ladies once a month. In some parts of the West these banquets take the form of picnics in the woods. They are quite popular, and have doubtless done much towards swelling the membership of the order. The efforts of several of the ladies who early became members of the Order have been directed to the development of this social portion of the Grange exercises. The compilation of the Grange Songs and the accompanying Melodies, was the work of Miss Carrie A. Hall, the present Lady Assistant Steward of the National Grange. Other ladies have planned and recommended other social exercises, which have been largely adopted. Most of the Granges have a musical instrument, either a piano, cabinet organ, or melodeon, and very many have also a good library for the instruction and benefit of their members. This is a very desirable addition to every Grange-room, and Mr. Saunders has been for some time engaged in making a list of books appropriate for such libraries, and arranging for their supply on favorable terms. These appliances tend to render young people of both sexes more contented with rural life, and less restless to find employment in the large cities.

This admission of women to the Order and its privileges, is moreover the highest possible guaranty of the purity and noble purposes of the Order, for, as it has been well said, "every husband and brother knows that where he can be accompanied by his wife or sister no lessons will be learned but those of purity and truth."

Declaration of Purposes.

Still clearer and more thoroughly satisfactory to all who may read it, appealing as it does to whatever is highest and noblest in our natures, is the "Declaration of Purposes" set forth at the meeting of the National Grange in St. Louis, in February, 1874, and unanimously adopted by that body. It is as follows:

PREAMBLE.

Profoundly impressed with the truth that the National Grange of the United States should definitely proclaim to the world its general

objects, we hereby unanimously make this declaration of purposes of the Patrons of Husbandry:

DECLARATION.

1. United by the strong and faithful tie of Agriculture, we mutually resolve to labor for the good of our Order, our country, and mankind.

2. We heartily endorse the motto, "In essentials, unity; in non-essentials, liberty; in all things, charity." We shall endeavor to advance our cause by laboring to accomplish the following objects:

To develop a better and higher manhood and womanhood among ourselves. To enhance the comforts and attractions of our homes, and strengthen our attachments to our pursuits. To foster mutual understanding and co-operation. To maintain inviolate our laws, and to emulate each other in labor. To hasten the good time coming. To reduce our expenses, both individual and corporate. To buy less and produce more, in order to make our farms self-sustaining. To diversify our crops, and crop no more than we can cultivate. To condense the weight of our exports, selling less in the bushel, and more on hoof and in fleece. To systematize our work, and calculate intelligently on probabilities. To discountenance the credit system, the mortgage system, the fashion system, and every other system tending to prodigality and bankruptcy.

We propose meeting together, talking together, working together, buying together, selling together, and in general acting together for our mutual protection and advancement as occasion may require. We shall avoid litigation as much as possible by arbitration in the Grange. We shall constantly strive to secure entire harmony, good-will, vital brotherhood among ourselves, and to make our Order perpetual. We shall earnestly endeavor to suppress personal, local, sectional, and national prejudices, all unhealthy rivalry, all selfish ambition. Faithful adherence to these principles will insure our mental, moral, social, and material advancement.

3. For our business interests we desire to bring producers and consumers, farmers and manufacturers, into the most direct and friendly relations possible. Hence we must dispense with a surplus of middlemen; not that we are unfriendly to them, but we do not need them. Their surplus and their exactions diminish our profits. We wage no aggressive warfare against any other interests whatever. On the contrary, all our acts and all our efforts, so far as business is concerned, are not only for the benefit of the producer and consumer, but also for all other interests, and tend to bring these two parties into speedy and economical contact. Hence we hold that transportation companies of every kind are necessary to our success, that their interests are intimately connected with our interests, and harmonious action is mutually advantageous. Keeping in view the first sentence in our declaration of principles of action, that "individual happiness depends upon general prosperity," we shall therefore advocate for every State the increase, in every practicable way, of all facilities for transporting cheaply to the

seaboard, or between home producers and consumers, all the productions of our country. We adopt it as our fixed purpose to open out the channels in Nature's great arteries, that the life-blood of commerce may flow freely. We are not enemies of railroads, navigation, and irrigating canals, nor of any corporation that will advance our industrial interests, nor of any laboring classes. In our noble Order there is no communism, no agrarianism. We are opposed to such spirit and management of any corporation or enterprise as tends to oppress the people and rob them of their just profits. We are not enemies of capital, but we oppose the tyranny of monopolies. We long to see the antagonism between capital and labor removed by common consent and by enlightened statesmanship worthy of the nineteenth century. We are opposed to excessive salaries, high rates of interest, and exorbitant profits in trade. They greatly increase our burdens, and do not bear a proper proportion to the profits of producers. We desire only self-protection and the protection of every interest of our land by legitimate transactions, legitimate trade, and legitimate profits.

4. We shall advance the cause of education among ourselves and for our children by all just means within our power. We especially advocate for our agricultural and industrial Colleges that practical agriculture, domestic science, and all the arts which adorn the home be taught in their courses of study.

5. We especially and sincerely assert the oft-repeated truth taught in our organic law, that the Grange, National, State, or subordinate, is not a political or party organization. No Grange, if true to its obligations, can discuss political or religious questions, nor call political conventions, nor nominate candidates, nor even discuss their merits in its meetings. Yet the principles we teach underlie all true politics, all true statesmanship, and if properly carried out will tend to purify the whole political atmosphere of our country. For we seek the greatest good to the greatest number, but we must always bear in mind that no one by becoming a Patron of Husbandry gives up that inalienable right and duty which belongs to every American citizen, to take a proper interest in the politics of his country. On the contrary, it is right for every member to do all in his power legitimately to influence for good the action of any political party to which he belongs. It is his duty to do all he can in his own party to put down bribery, corruption, and trickery; to see that none but competent, faithful, and honest men, who will unflinchingly stand by our industrial interests, are nominated for all positions. It should always characterize every Patron of Husbandry that the offices should seek the man and not the man the office. We acknowledge the broad principle that difference of opinion is no crime, and hold that progress towards truth is made by differences of opinion, while the fault lies in bitterness of controversy. We desire a proper equality, equity, and fairness, protection for the weak, restraint upon the strong; in short, justly distributed burdens and justly distributed power. These are American ideas, the very essence of American independence, and to advocate the contrary is unworthy of the sons and daughters of an American republic. We cherish the belief that sectionalism is, and of right should be, dead and buried with the past. Our

work is for the present and the future. In our agricultural brotherhood and its purposes we shall recognize no North, no South, no East, no West. It is reserved by every Patron, as the right of a freeman, to affiliate with any party that will best carry out his principles.

6. Ours being peculiarly a farmers' institution, we cannot admit all to our ranks. Many are excluded by the nature of our organization, not because they are professional men, or artisans, or laborers, but because they have not a sufficient direct interest in tilling or pasturing the soil, or may have some interest in conflict with our purposes. But we appeal to all good citizens for their cordial coöperation to assist in our efforts toward reform, that we may eventually remove from our midst the last vestige of tyranny and corruption. We hail the general desire for fraternal harmony, equitable compromise, and earnest coöperation, as an omen of our future success.

7. It shall be an abiding principle with us to relieve any of our suffering brotherhood by any means at our command. Last, but not least, we proclaim it among our purposes to inculcate a proper appreciation of the abilities and sphere of woman, as is indicated by admitting her to membership and position in our Order. Imploring the continued assistance of our Divine Master to guide us in our work, we here pledge ourselves to faithful and harmonious labor for all future time to return by our united efforts to the wisdom, justice, fraternity, and political purity of our forefathers.

Supply and Distributing Feature.

In the prosecution of this business, or pecuniary feature of the Order, the Secretary of the National Grange issued the following circular to manufacturers of agricultural and domestic implements and machinery, to which a liberal response has been made by nearly all the manufacturing houses, and contracts, of course entirely confidential, have been made with those who have thus responded, by which the subordinate Granges are able to supply themselves with these needed implements and machines at greatly reduced prices. This has been extended to sewing machines, melodeons, cabinet organs, pianos, knitting machines, carriages, wagons, etc., etc.

Similar arrangements have been made by circular with the largest wholesale houses in dry-goods, imported groceries, hardware, etc.; and the Patrons, buying exclusively for cash, can have the benefit of the largest and lowest cash markets. By agencies

already established and soon to be established, also arrangements have been made for a reduction of freights on many of the railways, and for the sale of the farmers' produce in the great markets at such prices as will give them the advantages which have hitherto accrued to middlemen.

CIRCULAR.

To the Manufacturers of Agricultural and Domestic Implements and Machinery :

The Order of Patrons of Husbandry is an organization of farmers and horticulturists, one object of which is to secure to its members the advantages of coöperation in all things affecting their interests. No movement ever inaugurated has met with such popular favor and universal acceptance as this Order.

Organizations known as Granges have been established in nearly every State and Territory of the Union, and the formation of new Granges is going on with constantly accelerating velocity. They are particularly numerous and powerful in the West and South, and the Order is now being rapidly extended through the Middle and Eastern States.

To enable the members of the Order to purchase implements and machinery at as low cost as possible, by saving the commission usually paid to agents, and the profits of the long line of dealers standing between the manufacturers and the farmers, the Executive Committee of the National Grange desire to publish a list of all establishments that will *deal directly* with State and Subordinate Granges. This list will be regarded as *strictly confidential*, and one copy only will be furnished to each Grange.

Large orders can thus be made up by the consolidation of the orders from Granges in the same State or vicinity, and special terms for freight, etc., arranged with transportation lines, thereby effecting another large saving to the purchaser.

Manufacturers of all articles used by farmers who desire to avail themselves of this means of disposing of their products directly to the consumer for cash, thereby avoiding the losses incident to the credit system, or the storing of goods in the hands of commission merchants or agents, are invited to send their catalogues and wholesale price lists to, and to correspond with,

By order of the Executive Committee,

O. H. KELLEY,

Sec'y of the National Grange, Washington, D. C.

Benefits.

That these aims and purposes of the Order are not mere empty boasts but facts accomplished already in its brief history, we have the most conclusive evidence: that of the communities where they have been longest in existence and where they have had the opportunity of carrying out their plans. Iowa and Missouri have been the two States in which they have exerted the widest influence. The following brief summary of their purposes is from the *Rural Sun*, an Iowa paper, partially devoted to their interests:

WHAT THE PATRONS PROPOSE TO DO.

1. To secure for themselves, through the Granges, social and educational advantages not otherwise attainable, and to thereby, while improving their condition as a class, ennoble farm life, and render it attractive and desirable.

2. To give a full practical effect to the fraternal tie which unites them, in helping and protecting each other in case of sickness, bereavement, pecuniary misfortune, and want, and danger of every kind.

3. To make themselves better and more successful farmers and planters, by means of the knowledge gained, the habits of industry and method established, and the quickening of thought induced by intercourse and discussion.

4. To secure economies in the buying of implements, fertilizers, and family supplies, and in transportation, as well as increased profits in the sale of the products of their labor, at the same time lessening the cost to the consumer.

5. To entirely abolish the credit system, in their ordinary transactions, always buying and selling on a cash basis, both among themselves and in their dealings with the outside world.

6. To encourage coöperation in trade, in farming, and in other branches of industry, especially those most intimately connected with agriculture.

7. To promote the true unity of the Republic, by drawing the best men and women of all parts of the country together in an organization which knows no sectional bounds—no prejudices,—owes no party allegiance.

How fully this programme has been carried out, let the *Tribune* Grange correspondent, a thoroughly competent and unprejudiced observer, testify. Of the operations of the Iowa Granges he testifies as follows, previously giving a vivid but truthful portraiture of the condition of the average Iowa farmer and his family in the days before the Grange was established :

The social condition of a majority of the farmers in this State before the organization of Granges is described by leading members as anything but satisfactory. The country comparatively new, having been settled only ten to twenty-five years, and the people still very much isolated. The dull monotony of their lives has only been broken in upon by an occasional wedding or funeral, and they have plodded on year after year, working from sunrise to sunset, taking very few holidays, rarely meeting each other, except at the cross-roads, store, church, or town-meeting ; reading very little, and, in fact, transforming themselves into corn and wheat producing machines. Of business methods they have known almost nothing. It was rare that a farmer was able to tell how much it cost him to make a bushel of corn or wheat, a pound of beef, or of butter, or to bale a ton of hay. The condition of the farmer's wife was even worse. Her work began earlier and ended later than that of her husband. It was a slavish life, with almost nothing to give it variety, or to lift the woman out of the deep rut of her daily drudgery. Perhaps the most of these people never knew any different kind of life ; perhaps they had better food and a greater abundance of it, more comfortable homes, and better clothing, than before they became Iowa farmers, but their enjoyment of life was of a lower order, and any one who will give them broader ideas will be hailed as a benefactor. We are not describing the average farmer of this State from personal observation ; that would be impossible for a stranger spending only a few days, or at most weeks, in the State to obtain ; but we are obliged to take the picture as it is painted by those who have been familiar with it for years, and who have often sat at the farmer's table and slept in his " spare room."

Such a state of affairs as we describe cannot be corrected in a month or a year, and yet, we are fully assured, the influence of the Grange in elevating the farmers socially is already very apparent. In the first place, it brings together the farmers of a neighbor-

hood, old and young, men and women, and if it did nothing more, it would not have been established in vain; for the people of a town cannot spend an hour, a week, in informal conversation, even, without gaining new ideas, and carrying away something to think about during the days that follow. But the meetings of the Grange are not entirely informal. A portion of the time is spent in the discussion of topics that are of especial interest to farmers. The best crops for particular lands, the best methods of cultivation, the experience of the different members, the cost of different kinds of crops—any questions the solution or discussion of which tend to make better farmers, are considered. The women read essays on the various duties of their departments, and thus learn to be better housewives. Sometimes the Grange considers social and moral questions, and sometimes its exercises are of a literary character. The discussion of political and religious questions is strictly forbidden by the constitution of the Order.

✓ Another custom which originated in the Grange is that of holding festivals at short intervals during the season. It is impossible for the farmer to leave his business for a month in the Summer and spend the time in recreation, and, if his work could be left, his purse is rarely long enough to pay the expenses of such a vacation. But he can spend a day between planting and cultivating, another before harvest, and a third when the grain is stacked: and the Grange, taking advantage of this, either invites those of neighboring townships to a basket picnic, or accepts an invitation itself. A day is spent in some pleasant grove; there is speaking and music, and perhaps a little dancing, and the farmer goes back to his field better prepared for his work, some of the marks of care are smoothed out of his wife's face, and the business of both field and house go on with less of fret and worry for the day's innocent recreation. We know from experience that those who till the soil work too many hours and have too few holidays. There is nothing that makes the work on a farm go easy like a holiday, and if it is rightly spent it puts new life into the work for a long time after.

The first object of the Grange—to elevate the farmer and his family—to make more intelligent men and women—seems in a fair way to be accomplished. But farmers selling corn for from

FLORA, CERES AND POMONA.



10 to 15 cents a bushel and wheat at 75 cents, cannot hold many meetings without beginning to talk about themselves, and to inquire why it is that while they can get only the bare cost, and sometimes not even that, for what they have to sell, they have to pay a profit of from 20 to 50 per cent. on everything they buy. The result of these inquiries has been the discussion of the transportation question—the formation of co-operative buying and selling associations—the adoption of more economical methods of farming—and, finally, the formation of the Anti-Monopoly party, which held its first convention only a few days ago. It is the secondary results of the establishment of the Grange in the State, rather than its original objects, that have attracted the attention of the whole country.

It is but little more than a year since prominent Grangers of Iowa were first successful in making large co-operative purchases, although previous to that, I think, they had appointed a State agent and a few country agents. They then found the manufacturers almost wholly in the power of the agents. Not only had they made their contracts with these agents for the year, giving to each a monopoly of the sales for his particular district, but, had they been disposed to disregard these contracts and sell to the agents of the Granges at wholesale rates, they did not dare to do it, because to lose the trade of the agents, who would have nothing to do with manufacturers selling at wholesale prices to other customers within their districts, would, while the present methods of doing business were adhered to, be nothing short of ruin. The farmers who were moving in the matter understood this; they knew that it was unreasonable to ask a plough-maker, a sewing-machine dealer, or any other manufacturer or wholesale merchant, to abandon a business system by which he was supported, unless the Grange could offer him in exchange an equally profitable and extensive patronage. And just here may be explained the failure of all local attempts at co-operative machinery buying. Where the farmers of a county united to purchase their ploughs and sent their agent or agents to the manufacturer, they found that they could get no material reduction of price. The manufacturer would say: "My trade in your county belongs to Mr. A, and I have agreed not to sell goods to persons living there below his prices, or at any rate to pay him his customary

commission on all such sales that we do make. You want twenty ploughs; if we sell them to you at our wholesale price we shall either have to lose the agent's commission on them or lose his trade, and he takes a thousand ploughs a year." No local co-operative association could command trade enough to make it an object for the manufacturers to show them any important favors.

But the wide spread of the Grange in this State gave to the farmers the means of holding out to any manufacturer whom its members should generally patronize, an inducement to give up the trade of the agents and sell directly to them, and the managers of the Grange were not slow to avail themselves of the power they thus acquired. Having agreed to buy nothing on credit, but to pay cash for all their purchases, and having received assurances from a sufficient number of Granges that their members would purchase through their own agent, application was made to three manufacturers of ploughs in Des Moines at wholesale rates. Two of them refused to make any terms with the Grange, but the third agreed to make a reduction of twenty per cent. on the retail price of each of his ploughs, and twenty-five per cent. on cultivators. The result was that this man, although he made up a large stock in advance, was unable to supply the demand of the Grange, and the freight agent of one of the railroads at Des Moines remarked the other day that the paint had not been dry on a single plough that had been shipped from that man's shop this year. One of the other manufacturers very soon discovered his mistake and got some of the orders that the first could not fill, and the third is now ready to trade with the Granges. Ploughs have also been bought of other manufacturers, both in this State and those adjoining.

How many ploughs the Granges have purchased within a year at these reduced prices cannot be ascertained, as, after the contract had been made by the State Agent, the orders did not necessarily come through him, and no complete record has therefore been kept; the County Agents have forwarded many of them directly to the manufacturers, the only condition being that the cash accompany the order and that the purchaser be a Granger. It is safe to say, however, that the purchases have amounted to many thousands, and that not less than \$50,000 have been saved

to the farmers of the State, within a year, in the purchase of ploughs and cultivators alone.

In the purchase of sewing machines the saving has been still greater and the sales very large. The retail price of sewing machines in this State has been from \$50 to \$95, according to variety; they are now sold to the Grangers at 40 per cent. discount from these prices, or from \$30 to \$57. The demand has been so great that 1,500 machines have been ordered to be delivered during the coming year. Supposing all of these to be of the cheapest variety, the saving will be \$30,000. The number purchased will probably far exceed 1,500. On parlor organs the discount to the Granges is from 20 to 25 per cent.; on scales, from 25 to 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.; on shellers, 15 per cent.; on wagons, 20 per cent.; on hay-forks, 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.; on miscellaneous implements, like feed-grinders, stalk-cutters, harrows, field-rollers, hay-rakes, grain separators, etc., 25 per cent. On mowers the discount is 25 per cent.; that is, a machine which retails at \$120 is sold to the Grangers for \$90. A lot of reapers which a manufacturer who was going out of the business had on hand were offered to the Grangers for \$75 each, provided they would take the whole of them. They were carefully examined and tested by the State Agent and others, who reported that they would be cheap at \$150. A circular conveying this information was sent to the Granges of the State, and the whole lot was disposed of at once. They have given universal satisfaction. We might go on at great length quoting prices, but those we have given are sufficient to show that by intelligent co-operation the farmers of the West can save a great amount of money. Gen. Wilson, Secretary of the State Grange, thinks that \$2,000,000 has already been saved in this way. Mr. Whitman, the State Agent, to whose well-directed and untiring efforts the success that has so far crowned this experiment is in very great measure due, thinks this figure too high, though he has no data from which to make an estimate. The Grange has not only benefited its own members by its co-operative purchases, but has caused a reduction in the prices of all kinds of farming implements, sewing-machines, etc., in the stores and when sold by agents. A single example will illustrate this fact. A year ago, when the agents for the sale of a certain cultivator supposed that they had the entire control of the market, they charged \$35, and

threatened to raise the price. Since the Grange has been purchasing similar cultivators for \$26.25, the agents have reduced their prices to \$30.

The manner of conducting this co-operative buying is very simple, although to insure success it is necessary to place it in the hands of competent and honest men. Mr. J. D. Whitman, the State Agent, has his office at Des Moines, and is the principal manager. He gives a bond of \$50,000 for the honest and faithful performance of his duties, and receives a small salary. In each county of the State there is a County Agent, who may also be placed under bonds, if the Granges of the county think it necessary. The State Agent places himself in communication with manufacturers and wholesale merchants, learns the terms on which they will sell their goods to the Granges, makes contracts with them when it is desirable, and informs the Granges by circular of the prices, etc. Orders may then be given through either the State or County Agents. All orders must be accompanied by the cash to pay for the article desired, and a certificate from the Master of the Grange that the purchaser is a member of the Order. The State Agent on receiving money credits the remitter with the amount on his books, specifying the article to be purchased, and sending him a receipt. He at once forwards the cash to the manufacturer or merchant, and then debits the purchaser with the amount remitted. The goods are shipped directly from the manufacturer to the purchaser, but the receipted bill is sent to the State Agent, who files it away as his voucher. If the goods are imperfect or not as good as have been contracted for, and the seller refuses to give the purchaser satisfaction, then the Grange transfers its entire trade to some other firm. A man who was furnishing the Grange with ploughs last spring, sent a few that were much inferior to the sample. A circular was sent to all the Granges informing them of this fact, and in less than a week orders for that plough stopped, and the man has not sold one to a Grange in the State since.

The State Agent always gives preference to home manufacturers. Wherever an Iowa plough-maker or manufacturer of any kind can furnish first-class goods as cheaply as they can be purchased at Chicago, St. Louis, or New York, the Grange gives him its trade, but the motto is to buy in the cheapest market which

ready cash will command. In some sections of the State the members of the Grange have established joint-stock stores, and have thus been able to purchase their groceries and dry-goods much cheaper than before. This has not been generally encouraged by the leading Grangers, except in cases where the local traders have refused to deal with them on what they considered fair terms. The great bulk of the home trade in this State has been done on credit, and the farmers who have remained solvent have had to pay not only a fair profit on the goods they have purchased, but something in addition for the time that has been given them, and to make up for the losses of the traders by bad debts. Now the members of the Grange who propose to pay cash for what they buy, think that they ought to have their goods cheaper than before. Some of the traders have admitted the justice of this claim, and have made satisfactory terms, but others have refused. Where no terms could be made, the Grangers have been forced to establish their own stores. Their plan has been to divide the stock into shares of \$10 or \$15, so that each member of the Order can afford to own one or more shares. The goods are then all bought and sold for cash, an advance of 8 per cent. on the cost being charged. At Waterloo, where a store of this kind has been established, the farmers find that they obtain better articles at less prices, and that their stock pays them a good profit. The average sales in that store, since its establishment, have been \$112 a day, a considerable portion of it coming from the railroad shops situated there.

But it is not alone by co-operative purchases that the Grangers hope to save money. They have not only bought their goods on credit, and therefore in the highest market, but they have sold their crops at home to middle-men for cash, and therefore in the lowest market. They now hope, by co-operative selling, to get better prices for what they raise than they have hitherto received. Until quite recently such a thing as shipping his own grain to Chicago, or any Eastern market, has been almost unknown among the farmers. Whenever any of them have attempted it they have often been swindled so badly that they have lost all confidence in commission merchants. One of the first steps that the Grange took was to select a commission house of the highest character in Chicago, and another in New York, and make them

its agents. Each of these houses has given bonds to the amount of \$100,000, and agreed to receive everything that is consigned by the Grange or any of its members, and dispose of the same to the best possible advantage, taking only one per cent. for commission. Since this arrangement has been made, many of the farmers have shipped their own grain, and the Chicago agent has been able to sell it for them on the cars upon which it was originally loaded, thus avoiding altogether elevator charges and the cost of transshipment. The prices thus realized by the farmers have generally been several cents a bushel better for grain than those offered at home, although the railroad companies have given them no special rates.

In order to take advantage of favorable markets, the Granges have established at several points in the State elevators and warehouses of their own. In some places these warehouses have been built by two or three prominent members of the Order; in others the stock has been divided into small shares, and is owned by great numbers of the farmers. The plan of conducting the business is the same in both cases. If the farmer prefers to sell his grain outright and get the money for it when it is delivered, the managers will pay him the highest price the state of the market warrants; if he is willing to take the risk of the market, they handle his grain for him, sell it, and return him the proceeds for a commission of a cent and a half a bushel. This makes the farmers almost independent of middle-men between them and Chicago or New York markets. If the price offered for their grain is not in their judgment enough, they are not obliged to sell it at home, but can ship it themselves, feeling perfectly sure that they will be honestly dealt with, will have to pay no exorbitant commissions, and will get the best market price. At Waterloo, about 100 miles west of Dubuque, an elevator was established by the Grange about December, 1872, or January, 1873, the stock being held by a great number of farmers. Grain that had been shipped from that point both to New York and Chicago had brought the farmers considerably better prices than the local traders would pay; and beside this, recently a dividend of 50 per cent. was made on the stock. The Grangers' elevators now do all the business at that and other stations where they have been established, the local middle-men having gone entirely out of the

business. If a Granger who does not live near one of these Grange elevators desires to make a shipment on his own account, he applies for cars at his local station, loads them, directs them to the Grange Agent in Chicago or New York, and sends the receipts which the railroad company gives him to the State Agent at Des Moines. By him the proper papers are forwarded to the Chicago or New York Agent, and to him the returns are made. The State Agent then returns to the shipper all the papers showing the charges and receipts on his shipment, with a check for the balance due.

The farmers of this State raise every year a great number of hogs, that have always passed through the hands of at least one middle-man before they reach the packers. The Granges in some parts of the State concluded, last year, that they might as well sell directly to the packers themselves, and appointed one of their number to collect the hogs and deliver them. A considerable saving was made in this way, and the experiment will be much more extensively tried this fall. In some parts of the State the Grangers are already talking of establishing their own packing-houses; so that, instead of selling the hogs alive, they can sell them in the shape of bacon, hams, and lard, packed and ready for shipment. They hope to realize much larger prices than by the old system.

Another experiment, which was tried to a limited extent in the spring of 1873, and was attended with a gratifying degree of success, was the direct shipment, by members of the Grange in this State, of provisions to planters in the South, who are members of the Grange there. This business was managed by Mr. Shankland, of Dubuque, a member of the National Executive Committee of the Grange. He received orders from Grangers in South Carolina, accompanied by the cash, and purchased flour and bacon, which he shipped directly to the consumer. The purchases were made of the farmers when it was possible to do so, and when not, of the packers and millers in this city. The shipments were made by rail, by way of Cairo, Hickman, Ky., Nashville, Chattanooga, and Atlanta, to Columbia, two transshipments being made on the route. The railroad companies made special rates at from \$1.08 to \$1.15 per hundred pounds. Bacon was thus laid down at Columbia, S. C., at less than 8 cents a pound,

while its market value there was from 12 to 14 cents a pound. One planter informed Mr. Shankland that he saved by this plan \$400 on a single car-load of flour and bacon. Only 23 or 24 car-loads of provisions were shipped in this way last spring, for the reason that these transactions are all between members of the Order, and the Grange had not at that time become much of an institution in the Southern States. There are now in the South 1,600 Granges, outside of Missouri, and it is expected that the number will be increased to at least 2,000 by spring. By that time it is also hoped that the Grangers of Iowa will have established a number of packing-houses and perhaps a few mills, so that they will be able to ship provisions directly to Southern consumers without their passing through the hands of any middle-men. There is no doubt that a large business of this kind will be done in 1874.

Co-operative buying and selling by the Granges is as yet but an experiment, but the facts set forth in this letter, all of which are gathered from official sources, show it to be a very promising one. Of course there have been, and will be, difficulties to overcome. The farmers are often timid; a sudden decline in the market causing them to lose money on a single shipment of grain sometimes alarms them, and they are prone to go back to the old grain-buyers, forgetting, perhaps, that their gains on other shipments compensate many times for the loss on one. Dishonest men may secure appointment as agents and swindle them, and a hundred other things may occur to retard the success of the system. But the leaders of it, most of whom have been life-long disciples of Mr. Greeley, believe that the principle is right, and that the Grange organization furnishes the machinery by which it can be put into practical operation.

Several Western journals have contained articles purporting to give an estimate of the immense sums of money that the Grange is taking from the farmers in the shape of fees, dues, etc., and have hinted that it was a foolish waste of money, which should be stopped before the people could be made to believe the farmers' cry of "hard times." They have also criticised the Grange for its secrecy. In justice to the Order, as I have observed it, I wish to repeat what I said in a former letter—that all attempts to organize the farmers for any purpose previous to the

establishment of the Grange were failures ; that its constitution and by-laws are public ; that, as at present organized, it cannot be converted into a secret caucus to further the ends of any men or party, though it teaches certain principles which its members will probably demand shall be recognized by the parties or the men they support ; and finally, that, though the Grange does collect from its members, in the aggregate, a considerable sum of money, it has already returned to them in Iowa alone, through co-operation, which is yet only an experiment, more money than has been paid into it throughout the country, to say nothing of the intellectual and social benefits it has conferred upon its members. The Granger who has bought a plough only through the agent of the Grange has saved more than enough to pay his fees for a year, while those who have purchased sewing machines or other expensive machinery have saved enough to pay their fees for several years.

The testimony on these points in regard to Missouri, Illinois, and Indiana is equally conclusive, and shows satisfactorily that with as yet not more than a year and a half of active vigorous life, the Order is fulfilling to the letter all its promises.

METHOD OF ORGANIZATION OF SUBORDINATE GRANGES.

This is more fully detailed in the constitution and by-laws of the National, State, and subordinate Granges ; but we may remark here, that a subordinate Grange may be organized or instituted by deputy or lecturer of the National Grange ; or if there is a State Grange in existence in the State, a deputy appointed by him is assigned to this work, or with his approval a national lecturer or deputy may still perform it. Every Grange pays into the National treasury \$15 for a Dispensation, receiving in return material consisting of sample regalias, manuals, song-books, blank-books ; in a word, everything essential to starting the Grange. All the funds received by the National Grange are deposited in the Farmer's Loan and Trust Company, of New York. They received over \$100,000 in fees in 1873, and had at the close of the year a large surplus on hand. When fifteen subordinate Granges are organized in a State, authority is granted to organize a State Grange, composed of Masters of the subordinate Grange, who, in turn, elect their Master, and he becomes a member of the National Grange.

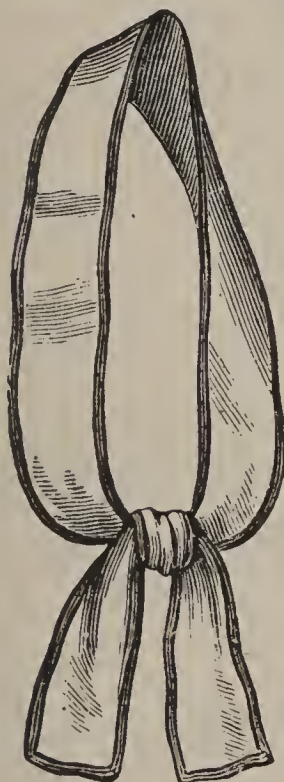
The highest organization bears the same relation to the Order that Congress does to the States, the State organization to the Legislature, and the subordinate Granges to counties and municipalities. There is also an executive committee, both National and State, whose duty it is to attend to the work assigned them for the general good of the Order.

Description of Regalia, &c.



APRON FOR PATRONESS.

Size, 20×20 inches, with bib 6 inches long; of white muslin or linen, trimmed with scarlet worsted braid half inch wide.



SASH FOR PATRONESS.

Of white muslin or linen; 70 inches in length, 4 inches wide; trimmed with scarlet worsted braid, half inch wide; worn over the right shoulder, and ends tied in knot.

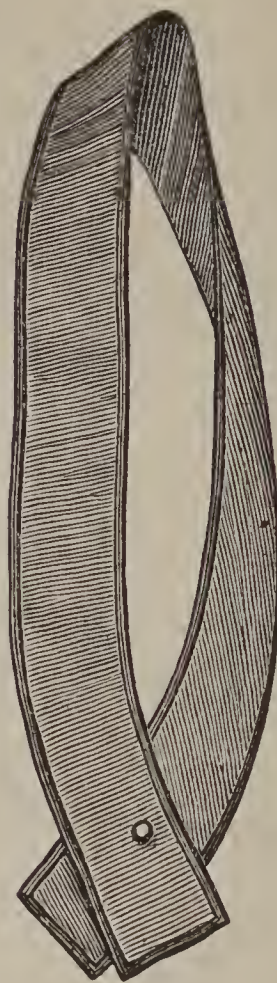


APRON FOR PATRON.

Size of apron, 17 inches wide and 10 inches deep, with flap 4 inches in depth; material, brown Nanken, lined with brown book muslin; a plough, with the motto, "Patrons, plough deep," is printed on the flap.

SASH FOR PATRON.

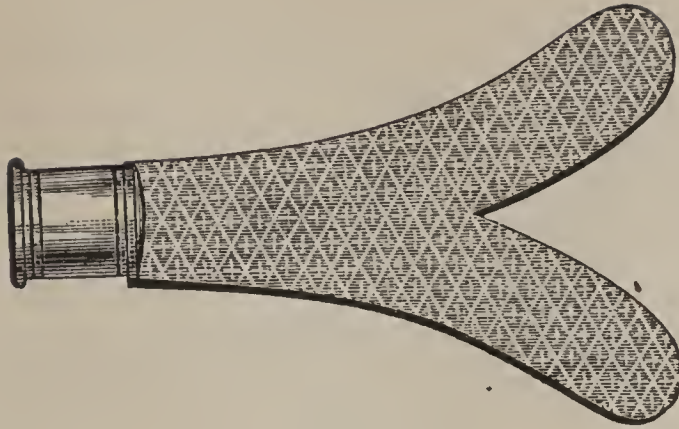
Size, 70 inches long, 5 inches wide ; material, brown Nankeen, lined with brown book muslin, and trimmed with scarlet worsted braid half inch wide ; to be worn over the right shoulder, with ends crossed under left arm, and fastened with an agate button.



OFFICERS' JEWELS.

Size, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches square, half inch wide, representing rail-fence of white metal with background of green silk, and letter of white metal, signifying office, viz. :—
M, for Master ; *O*, for Overseer ;
L, for Lecturer ; *S*, for Steward ;
A. S., for Assistant Steward ; *C*,
 for Chaplain ; *T*, for Treasurer ;
S Y, for Secretary ; *G K*, for Gate-
 keeper ; *C*, for Ceres ; *P*, for
 Pomona ; *F*, for Flora ; *L. A. S.*,
 for Lady Assistant Steward.





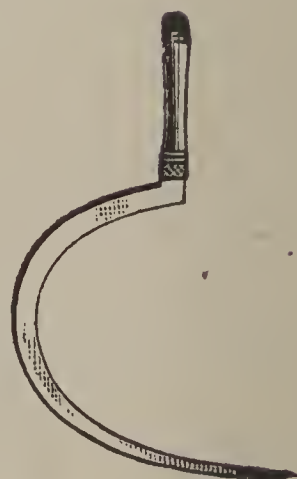
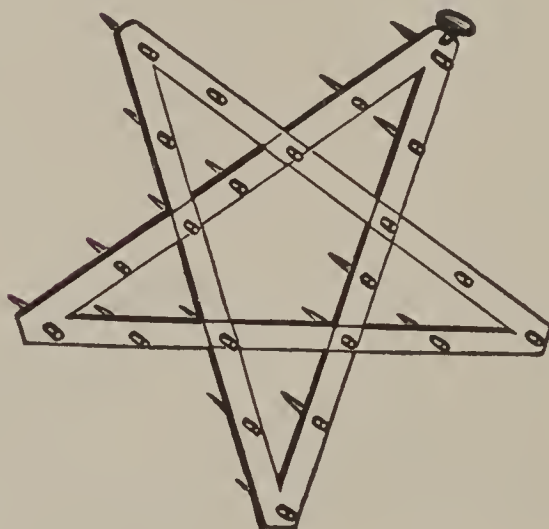
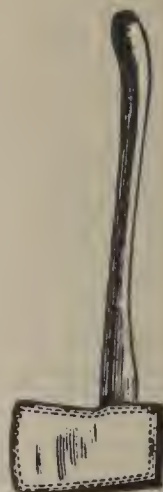
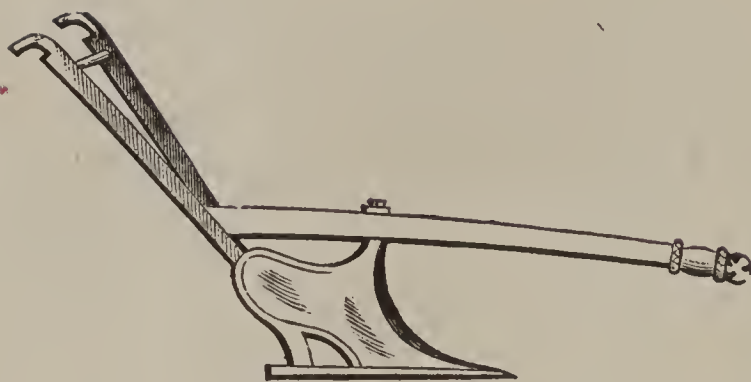
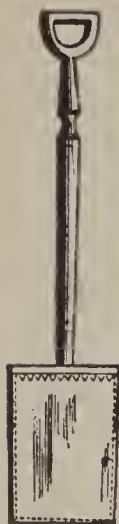
SPUD FOR STEWARD.



PRUNING HOOK FOR ASSISTANT STEWARD.



CROOK FOR LADY ASSISTANT STEWARD.



MASTER'S TOOLS.

Constitutions and By-laws of National, State and Subordinate Granges.

CONSTITUTION OF NATIONAL GRANGE.

PREAMBLE.

HUMAN happiness is the acme of earthly ambition. Individual happiness depends upon general prosperity.

The prosperity of a nation is in proportion to the value of its productions.

The soil is the source from whence we derive all that constitutes wealth; without it we would have no agriculture, no manufactures, no commerce. Of all the material gifts of the Creator, the various productions of the vegetable world are of the first importance. The art of agriculture is the parent and precursor of all arts, and its products the foundation of all wealth.

The productions of the earth are subject to the influence of natural laws, invariable and indisputable; the amount produced will consequently be in proportion to the intelligence of the producer, and success will depend upon his knowledge of the action of these laws, and the proper application of their principles.

Hence, knowledge is the foundation of happiness.

The ultimate object of this organization is for mutual instruction and protection, to lighten labor by diffusing a knowledge of its aims and purposes, expand the mind by tracing the beautiful laws the great Creator has established in the Universe, and to enlarge our views of Creative wisdom and power.

To those who read aright, history proves that in all ages society is fragmentary, and successful results of general welfare can be secured only by general effort. Unity of action cannot be acquired without discipline, and discipline cannot be enforced without significant organization; hence we have a ceremony of initiation which binds us in mutual fraternity as with a band of iron; but although its influence is so powerful, its application is as gentle as that of the silken thread that binds a wreath of flowers.

The Patrons of Husbandry consist of the following:

ORGANIZATION.

Subordinate Granges.

First Degree: Laborer, (man,) Maid, (woman.)

Second Degree: Cultivator, (man,) Shepherdess, (woman.)

Third Degree: Harvester, (man,) Gleaner, (woman.)

Fourth Degree: Husbandman, (man,) Matron, (woman.)

*State Grange.**Fifth Degree : Pomona, (Hopc.)*

Composed of Masters of Subordinate Granges and their wives who are Matrons. Past Masters and their wives who are Matrons shall be honorary members and eligible to office, but not entitled to vote.

*National Grange.**Sixth Degree : Flora, (Charity.)*

Composed of Masters of State Granges and their wives who have taken the degree of Pomona. Past Masters of State Granges, and their wives who have taken said degree of Pomona, shall be honorary members and eligible to office, but not entitled to vote.

Seventh Degree : Ceres, (Faith.)

Members of the National Grange who have served one year therein may become members of this degree upon application and election. It shall have charge of the secret work of the Order, and shall be a court of impeachment of all officers of the National Grange.

Members of this degree are honorary members of the National Grange, and are eligible to office therein, but not entitled to vote.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—Officers.

SECTION 1. The officers of a Grange, either National, State, or Subordinate, consist of and rank as follows: Master, Overseer, Lecturer, Steward, Assistant Steward, Chaplain, Treasurer, Secretary, Gate-keeper, Cereus, Pomona, Flora, and Lady Assistant Steward. It is their duty to see that the laws of the Order are carried out.

SEC. 2.—*How Chosen.*—In the Subordinate Granges they shall be chosen annually; in the State Granges once in two years; and in the National Grange once in three years. All elections to be by ballot.

Vacancies by death or resignation to be filled at a special election at the next regular meeting thereof—officers so chosen to serve until the annual meeting.

SEC. 3. The Master of the National Grange may appoint members of the Order as Deputies to organize Granges where no State Grange exists.

SEC. 4. There shall be an Executive Committee of the National Grange, consisting of three members, whose term of office shall be three years, one of whom shall be elected each year.

SEC. 5. The officers of the respective Granges shall be addressed as “WORTHY.”

ARTICLE II.—Meetings.

SECTION 1. *Subordinate Granges* shall meet once each month, and may hold intermediate meetings as may be deemed necessary for the good of the Order. All business meetings are confined to the Fourth Degree.

SEC. 2. *State Granges* shall meet annually at such time and place as the Grange shall from year to year determine.

SEC. 3. The *National Grange* shall meet annually on the first Wednesday in February, at such place as the Grange may from year to year determine. Should the National Grange adjourn without selecting the place of meeting, the Executive Committee shall appoint the place and notify the Secretary of the National Grange and the Masters of State Granges, at least thirty days before the day appointed.

ARTICLE III.—*Laws.*

The National Grange, at its annual session, shall frame, amend, or repeal such laws as the good of the Order may require. All laws of State and Subordinate Granges must conform to this Constitution and the laws adopted by the National Grange.

ARTICLE IV.—*Ritual.*

The Ritual adopted by the National Grange shall be used in all Subordinate Granges, and any desired alteration in the same must be submitted to, and receive the sanction of, the National Grange.

ARTICLE V.—*Membership.*

Any person interested in agricultural pursuits, of the age of sixteen years, (female,) and eighteen years, (male,) duly proposed, elected, and complying with the rules and regulations of the Order, is entitled to membership and the benefit of the degrees taken. Every application must be accompanied by the fee of membership. If rejected, the money will be refunded. Applications must be certified by members, and balloted for at a subsequent meeting. It shall require three negative votes to reject an applicant.

ARTICLE VI.—*Fees for Membership.*

The minimum fee for membership in a Subordinate Grange shall be, for men five dollars, and for women two dollars, for the four degrees, except charter members, who shall pay—men, three dollars, and women fifty cents.

ARTICLE VII.—*Dues.*

SECTION 1. The minimum of regular monthly dues shall be ten cents from each member, but each Grange may otherwise regulate its own dues.

SEC. 2. The Secretary of each Subordinate Grange shall report quarterly to the Secretary of the State Grange the names of all persons initiated or passed to higher degrees.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer of each Subordinate Grange shall report quarterly, and pay to the Treasurer of his State Grange the sum of one dollar for each man and fifty cents for each woman initiated during that quarter; also, a quarterly due of six cents for each member.

SEC. 4. The Secretary of each State Grange shall report quarterly to the Secretary of the National Grange the membership in his State, and the degrees conferred during the quarter.

SEC. 5. The Treasurer of each State Grange shall deposit to the credit of the National Grange of Patrons of Husbandry with some Banking or Trust Company in New York, (to be selected by the Executive Committee,) in quarterly instalments, the annual due of ten cents for each member in his

State, and forward the receipts for the same to the Treasurer of the National Grange.

SEC. 6. All moneys deposited with said company shall be paid out only upon the drafts of the Treasurer, signed by the Master, and countersigned by the Secretary.

SEC. 7. No State Grange shall be entitled to representation in the National Grange whose dues are unpaid for more than one quarter.

ARTICLE VIII.—*Requirements.*

SECTION 1. Reports from Subordinate Granges relative to crops, implements, stock, or any other matters called for by the National Grange, must be certified to by the Master and Secretary, and under seal of the Grange giving the same.

SEC. 2. All printed matter, on whatever subject, and all information issued by the National or State to Subordinate Granges, shall be made known to the members without unnecessary delay.

SEC. 3. If any brothers or sisters of the Order are sick, it shall be the duty of the Patrons to visit them, and see that they are well provided with all things needful.

SEC. 4. Any member found guilty of wanton cruelty to animals shall be expelled from the Order.

SEC. 5. The officers of Subordinate Granges shall be on the alert in devising means by which the interests of the whole Order may be advanced; but no plan of work shall be adopted by State or Subordinate Granges without first submitting it to, and receiving the sanction of, the National Grange.

ARTICLE IX.—*Charters and Dispensations.*

SECTION 1. All Charters and Dispensations issue directly from the National Grange.

SEC. 2. Nine men and four women having received the four Subordinate Degrees, may receive a Dispensation to organize a Subordinate Grange.

SEC. 3. Applications for Dispensations shall be made to the Secretary of the National Grange, and be signed by the persons applying for the same, and be accompanied by a fee of fifteen dollars.

SEC. 4. Charter members are those persons *only* whose names are upon the application, and whose fees were paid at the time of organization. Their number shall not be less than nine men and four women, nor more than twenty men and ten women.

SEC. 5. Fifteen Subordinate Granges working in a State can apply for authority to organize a State Grange.

SEC. 6. When State Granges are organized, Dispensations will be replaced by Charters, issued without further fee.

SEC. 7. All Charters must pass through the State Grange for record, and receive the seal and official signatures of the same.

SEC. 8. No Grange shall confer more than one degree (either *First*, *Second*, *Third*, or *Fourth*) at the same meeting.

SEC. 9. After a State Grange is organized, all applications for Charters must pass through the same, and be approved by the Master and Secretary.

ARTICLE X.—*Duties of Officers.*

The duties of the officers of the National, State, and Subordinate Granges shall be prescribed by the laws of the same.

ARTICLE XI.—*Treasurers.*

SECTION 1. The Treasurers of the National, State, and Subordinate Granges shall give bonds, to be approved by the officers of their respective Granges.

SEC. 2. In all Granges bills must be approved by the Master, and countersigned by the Secretary, before the Treasurer can pay the same.

ARTICLE XII.—*Restrictions.*

Religious or political questions will not be tolerated as subjects of discussion in the work of the Order, and no political or religious tests for membership shall be applied.

ARTICLE XIII.—*Amendments.*

This Constitution can be altered or amended by a two-thirds vote of the National Grange at any annual meeting, and when such alteration or amendment shall have been ratified by three-fourths of the State Granges, and the same reported to the Secretary of the National Grange, it shall be of full force.

Various amendments to this Constitution were voted for at the seventh annual session of the National Grange, which met at St. Louis in February, 1874. These amendments will not be in force until they have been ratified by three-fourths of the State Granges.

By-Laws of the National Grange.

AS ADOPTED AT THE SEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION, 1874.

ARTICLE I.

The fourth day of December, the birthday of the Patrons of Husbandry, shall be celebrated as the anniversary of the Order.

ARTICLE II.

Not less than the representation of twenty States present at any meeting of the National Grange shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE III.

At the annual meeting of each State Grange it may elect a proxy to represent the State Grange in the National Grange in case of the inability of the Master to attend, and such proxies shall in all cases be Past Masters of their State Granges.

ARTICLE IV.

Questions of administration and jurisprudence arising in and between State Granges, and appeals from the action and decision thereof, shall be referred to the Master and Executive Committee of the National Grange, whose decision shall be respected and obeyed until overruled by action of the National Grange.

ARTICLE V.

It shall be the duty of the Master to preside at meetings of the National Grange; to see that all officers and members of committees properly perform their respective duties; to see that the Constitution, By-Laws and resolutions of the National Grange, and the usages of the Order, are observed and obeyed, and generally to perform all duties pertaining to such office.

ARTICLE VI.

It shall be the duty of the Secretary to keep a record of all proceedings of the National Grange, to keep a just and true account of all moneys received and deposited by him in the fiscal agency; to countersign all drafts drawn by the Treasurer; to conduct the correspondence of the National Grange; and to perform such other duties appertaining to his office as may be required by the Master and Executive Committee.

It shall be his duty, at least once each week, to deposit with the fiscal agency holding the funds of the National Grange all moneys that may have come into his hands, and forward a duplicate receipt therefor to the Treasurer, and to make a full report of all transactions to the National Grange at each annual session.

It shall be his further duty to procure a monthly report from the fiscal agency, with whom the funds of the National Grange are deposited, of all moneys received and paid out by them during each month, and send a copy of such report to the Executive Committee and the Master of the National Grange.

He shall give bond in such sum and with such security as may be approved by the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE VII.

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to issue all drafts upon the fiscal agency of the Order, said drafts having been previously approved by the Master and countersigned by the Secretary of the National Grange.

SEC. 2. He shall report monthly to the Master of the National Grange a statement of all moneys deposited to his credit in the fiscal agency, and of all drafts signed by him during the previous month.

SEC. 3. He shall report to the National Grange at each annual session a statement of all moneys deposited in the fiscal agency, and of all drafts signed by him since his last annual report.

SEC. 4. It shall be his duty to collect all interest accruing on investments made by the Executive Committee, and to deposit the same in the fiscal agency.

ARTICLE VIII.

It shall be the duty of the Lecturer to visit, for the good of the Order, such portions of the United States as the Master or the Executive Committee may direct, for which service he shall receive compensation.

ARTICLE IX.

It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to exercise a general supervision of the affairs of the Order during the recess of the National Grange. They shall have authority to act on all matters of interest to the Order, when the National Grange is not in session; shall provide for the welfare of the Order in business matters; and shall report their acts in detail to the National Grange on the first day of its annual meeting.

The Master of the National Grange shall be considered, *ex officio*, a member of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE X.

SECTION 1. Such compensation for time and service shall be given the Master, Lecturer, Secretary, Treasurer, and Executive Committee as the National Grange may, from time to time, determine.

SEC. 2. Whenever General Deputies are appointed by the Master of the National Grange, said Deputies shall receive such compensation for time and services as may be determined by the Master or the Executive Committee: Provided, in no case shall pay from the National Grange be given General Deputies in any State after the formation of its State Grange.

ARTICLE XI.

SEC. 1. The financial reports of Subordinate Granges shall be made on the first day of January, the first day of April, the first day of July, and the first day of October.

SEC. 2. State Granges shall date their financial existence three months after the first day of January, first day of April, first day of July, and first day of October, immediately following their organization.

ARTICLE XII.

Each session of the National Grange shall fix the compensation of its members.

ARTICLE XIII.

Special meetings of the National Grange shall be called by the Master upon the application of the Masters of twenty State Granges, one month's notice of such meeting being given to all members of the National Grange. No alterations or amendments to the By-Laws or Ritual shall be made at any special meeting.

ARTICLE XIV.

Upon the demand of five members, the ayes and noes may be called upon any question, and when so called, shall be entered by the Secretary upon his minutes.

ARTICLE XV.

Past Masters are Masters who have been duly elected and installed, and who have served out the term for which they were elected.

ARTICLE XVI.

Vacancies in office may be filled at any regular meeting of the Grange.

ARTICLE XVII.

Subordinate Granges may be consolidated in the mode and upon such terms as may be prescribed by the State Granges.

ARTICLE XVIII.

These By-Laws may be altered or amended at any annual meeting of the National Grange by a two-thirds vote of the members present.

The Constitution of the National Grange, so far as it is applicable, is also the Constitution of every State and Subordinate Grange; but the By-Laws of the State and the Subordinate Granges differ from each other in many particulars, according to the different conditions in which they are placed. We give as a sample of the By-Laws of the State Granges, that of New York.

ARTICLE I.—*Title.*

This Grange shall be known and distinguished as the New York State Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry.

ARTICLE II.—*Members.*

The membership of the State Grange shall consist of Masters of the Subordinate Granges and their wives who are Matrons. Past Masters and their wives, who are Matrons, are honorary members, and are eligible to hold office and speak, but not entitled to vote.

ARTICLE III.—*Meetings.*

The State Grange shall hold its regular annual meeting on the third Wednesday of March, at such place as the Grange may from time to time determine. Special meetings may be called by the Executive Committee, by giving written notice to each Subordinate Grange, entitled to representation, thirty days preceding.

ARTICLE IV.—*Quorum.*

A majority of all Subordinate Granges entitled to representation shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

ARTICLE V.—*Duties of Officers.*

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of the Master to preside at all meetings of the Grange, to see that all officers and members of Committees properly perform their respective duties; to see that the Constitution of the National Grange, the By-Laws of this State Grange, and the usages of the Order are observed and obeyed; to sign all drafts upon the Treasury, and to perform all other duties usually pertaining to such office.

SEC. 2. It shall be the duty of the Overseer to assist the Master in preserving order; to preside over the Grange in the absence of the Master, and in case of vacancy in the office of Master, he shall fill the same until the next annual meeting.

SEC. 3. The duties of Lecturer shall be such as usually devolve upon that officer in a Subordinate Grange. He shall also visit Subordinate Granges throughout the State, when requested to do so by the Executive Committee.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the Steward to have charge of the inner gate, and perform such other duties as are required by the Ritual.

SEC. 5. The Assistant Steward shall assist the Steward in the performance of his duties.

SEC. 6. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive all moneys, giving his receipt for the same; to keep an accurate account thereof, and pay all orders of the Grange signed by the Master and Secretary; to render a full account of his office at each annual meeting, and deliver to his successor in office all moneys, books, and papers pertaining to his office; and he shall give bonds in a sufficient amount to secure the money that may be placed in his hands—said bonds to be approved by the Executive Committee.

The Treasurers of Subordinate Granges shall report quarterly, and pay to the Treasurer of the State Grange the sum of one dollar for each man, and fifty cents for each woman initiated during that quarter; also, a quarterly due of six cents for each member. And the Treasurer of the State Grange shall send a receipt for the same to the Treasurer, and a duplicate to the Secretary of the Subordinate Grange, who (the Secretary) shall forward his duplicate to the Secretary of the State Grange in his quarterly report.

SEC. 7. The Secretary shall keep an accurate record of all proceedings of the Grange; make out all necessary returns to the National Grange, keep the accounts of the Subordinate Granges with the State Grange, and pay over quarterly to the Treasurer all moneys coming into his hands, and take his receipt for the same; he shall also keep a complete register of the names and members of all Subordinate Granges, and the names and addresses of Masters and Secretaries.

SEC. 8. The Gate Keeper shall see that the gates are properly guarded.

ARTICLE VI.—*Elections.*

All elections shall be by ballot, and a majority vote shall elect.

ARTICLE VII.—*Committees.*

SECTION 1. All Committees, unless otherwise ordered, shall be appointed by the Master.

SEC. 2. There shall be an Executive Committee, to consist of five members, who shall hold office for two years.

They shall have authority to act in all matters of interest to the Order, when the State Grange is not in session; shall provide for the welfare of the Order in business matters. To them shall be referred the reports of the Treasurer

and Secretary for examination ; and they shall audit all accounts prior to their being paid, and shall lay before the State Grange at each session a report of their acts, on the first day of its annual meeting.

ARTICLE VIII.—*Annual and Fiscal Year.*

SECTION 1. The Annual Year of this Grange shall commence on the first day of April and end on the last day of March in each year ; and the Fiscal Year shall commence on the first day of April and end on the last day of March.

SEC. 2. The Annual Year of Subordinate Granges shall commence on the first day of January and end on the last day of December in each year. (See Art. XI., By-Laws of National Grange.)

ARTICLE IX.—*Quarterly Dues.*

The Secretary shall see that the quarterly dues of the Subordinate Granges are promptly paid, and in case the dues remain delinquent two quarters, the delinquent Grange shall be reported to the Master of the State Grange. On receiving such notice, it shall be the duty of the Master to warn the delinquent Grange, and if the dues are not forwarded in thirty days, the Master shall advise the Master of the National Grange of such delinquency and recommend the revokal of the Charter of the delinquent Grange ; and any Grange whose Charter has been revoked, may petition the State Grange for reinstatement.

ARTICLE X.—*Withdrawal.*

Any brother or sister who is in good standing, and clear of the books of the Grange, is entitled to a withdrawal card upon the payment of the sum of twenty-five cents. Persons bearing such cards may be admitted without additional fees to membership in another Subordinate Grange, but shall be subject to the same form of petition, examination, and ballot, as those first applying for membership, except that a majority vote shall elect them.

ARTICLE XI.—*Applications.*

Persons making application for membership in our Order shall apply to the Subordinate Grange nearest to them, unless good and sufficient reason exists for doing otherwise. In such case the Grange to which application is made shall judge the reason, and may consult the Grange nearest the applicant.

ARTICLE XII.—*Deputies.*

The Master of the State Grange may appoint one or more deputies in each congressional district, when a proper person can be found, whose duty it shall be to organize new Granges, upon application being made to him by proper persons residing in his district ; to install officers of Granges when the same have been elected, and to be vigilant that no disorder shall obtain in the Granges under his jurisdiction, and to promptly report any such disorder to the Master. Deputies shall receive for organizing new Granges their necessary expenses. They shall be appointed for one year, subject to removal, for cause, by the Master. No other Granges shall hereafter be recognized, ex-

cept those organized by deputies as herein specified, excepting only those organized by the Master and Secretary.

ARTICLE XIII.—*Councils.*

It shall be lawful for Subordinate Granges to form themselves into Councils for the purpose of facilitating the transaction of business, buying, selling, and shipping, or such other purposes as may seem for the good of the Order. They shall be governed and the membership regulated by such laws as the Council may from time to time make, not in conflict with the Constitution of the National and State Granges. They may elect a business agent to act in concert with the Executive Committee, and it will be their duty to inform the Master of any irregularities practised by deputies within their jurisdiction.

ARTICLE XIV.—*Salary.*

The Secretary of the State Grange shall be allowed such compensation as the Executive Committee may determine.

ARTICLE XV.—*Trial of Officers.*

SECTION 1. The Executive Committee shall be empowered to try and suspend from office any officer of the State Grange who may prove inefficient or derelict in the discharge of his duty, subject to appeal to the ensuing session of the State Grange.

SEC. 2. A Master of a Subordinate Grange is amenable to a court constituted by the Grange of which he is a member, and an appeal lies from such court to the State Grange.

ARTICLE XVI.—*Expulsion.*

SECTION 1. It is provided that if any member of the Order shall reflect disgrace upon the same by grossly immoral or improper conduct, or if his acts shall show that he is in sympathy with our enemies, and is disposed to obstruct or defeat the work of our Order, rather than aid in the attainment of its objects, such person shall be adjudged to have forfeited his membership, and upon proof being made of his guilt, he shall be expelled from the Grange.

SEC. 2. Upon the filing with the Master of any Subordinate Grange the complaint of ten members of our Order, specifically charging that any member of his Grange is guilty of a violation of any of the provisions of section 1 of this article, it shall be his duty to investigate, without delay, the grounds upon which such charges are made, using reasonable diligence to bring the offender to trial thereon, and notifying said complainants of the time and place at which said investigation will be had.

SEC. 3. It is further provided, that should any Subordinate Grange, with which a complaint is filed, as provided in section 2 of this article, refuse to entertain said complaint, or neglect to bring its accused member to a speedy trial thereon, it shall thereby forfeit its membership in this body, with all benefits accruing therefrom; and it shall be the duty of the Master of the State Grange to recommend to the Master of the National Grange the revocation of the Charter of said offending Grange.

SEC. 4. Secretaries of Subordinate Granges shall report to the Secretary of this Grange all expulsions from their respective Granges, and he shall report the same quarterly to all the Subordinate Granges in the State.

ARTICLE XVII.—*Rules of Order.*

The Rules of Order shall be those of the House of Assembly of the State of New York, so far as applicable.

ARTICLE XVIII.—*Provisional Officers.*

The several officers elected at the provisional organization of the State Grange shall hold their positions until the regular meeting in March, 1874, or until their successors are elected and installed, and shall be entitled to the same honors as if holding for a full term.

ARTICLE XIX.—*Proxy to National Grange.*

It shall be the duty of the State Grange to elect a proxy to represent the Grange in the National Grange, to serve in case the Master is not able to attend.

ARTICLE XX.—*Amendments.*

The By-Laws may be amended at any regular meeting of this Grange, by a vote of two-thirds of the members present:

County or District Granges or Councils.

These have been found in many sections a necessity for several causes. 1. Where a State is large and the number of Subordinate Granges numerous, the meeting of the State Grange becomes unwieldy, and there is need of a more concentrated representation, which can be best accomplished by County or District organizations. In Iowa, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and several of the Southern States, this point has already been reached.

2. The financial interests of the Order often require concentrated action. The purchase of farming implements and machinery, and of sewing-machines, musical instruments, etc., etc., and the shipping and sale of products, can be more easily and readily accomplished through a County organization than through the smaller Subordinate Granges. Co-operation on these matters is always more effective when on a large scale.

3. In many sections the educational interests of the Order can be most effectually promoted by County organizations. The Order of Patrons of Husbandry has no disposition to disparage or ignore

our present system of popular public-school education; but it desires to increase tenfold its efficiency, and to render what aid it can in fostering a *higher education* of Academies, Colleges, and Universities, which shall make it possible for the children of every Patron, whether rich or poor, to obtain a thorough education, such as shall fit them for the greatest usefulness. These views have led the leading members of the Order to encourage, from time to time, the formation of these County or District Councils, that name being preferred for them, generally, to that of Grange.

Article XIII. of the former Constitution of the N. Y. State Grange is as follows:—

COUNCILS.

It shall be lawful for Subordinate Granges to form themselves into Councils for the purpose of facilitating the transaction of business, buying, selling, and shipping, or such other purposes as may seem for the good of the Order. They shall be governed and the membership regulated by such laws as the Council may from time to time make, not in conflict with the Constitution of the National and State Granges. They may elect a business agent to act in concert with the Executive Committee, and it will be their duty to inform the Master of any irregularities practised by deputies within their jurisdiction.

Worthy Master Hinckley, of the N. Y. State Grange, at its late session at Albany, said:—"County organizations are useful auxiliaries to a more complete success in our business relations. Through them purchases can be made in larger quantities, shipments of products can be aggregated, and more favorable rates of transportation secured.

"In one of the amendments to the Constitution that will be submitted for your approval, is an article authorizing County Granges, which are intended to supply in a legal manner this necessity. The consideration of this subject deserves your most careful attention. I apprehend that more of our immediate success depends upon the practical use of this feature of our order than upon any other."

The amendment to which he referred was the following:—

Art. No. 2, Sec. 2. There may be established District or County Granges in the fifth degree, not to exceed one to each County, composed

of Masters and Past-Masters of Subordinate Granges, and their wives who are Matrons, and such fourth-degree members (not to exceed three from each Subordinate Grange) as may be elected thereto by the Subordinate Granges, under such regulations as may be established by State Granges. Such District or County Granges shall have charge of the educational and business interests of the Order in their respective districts; and shall encourage, strengthen, and aid the subordinate Granges represented therein. Dispensations for such District or County Granges shall issue from the State Grange, and under such regulations as the State Grange may adopt."

But County Councils for these purposes already existed in several of the States, probably by authority of the State Granges, and one at least of these made communications to the National Grange. The National Grange also passed this resolution:—

"*Resolved*, That this National Grange recognize the right of the State Granges to have the legislative department of their body vested in representatives elected by the Masters of Granges in the various counties."

The following is a specimen Constitution of these County Councils of Patrons of Husbandry. They are largely established in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and other States.

CONSTITUTION OF COUNCIL.

ARTICLE I.—*Name.*

SECTION 1. This Association shall be called the ——— Co. Council of Patrons of Husbandry.

ARTICLE II.—*Objects.*

SEC. 1. The objects of this Council shall be the promotion and attainment of the united and uniform action of the Granges of which it is composed in all matters affecting their interest and welfare, in bringing the producers and consumers of agricultural implements and products closer together by buying and selling through this Council, or through such parties as may make arrangements with it to buy or sell such articles or implements as we may need, and to transact such other business as may be necessary to secure these ends.

ARTICLE III.—*Membership.*

SEC. 1. This Council shall be composed of Subordinate Granges in regular working order, who have complied with the rules and regulations of this Council.

SEC. 2. All Granges in regular working order may be represented in this Council by a majority vote of all the delegates present at any regular meeting, and the payment of five dollars to the Secretary.

ARTICLE IV.—*Representation.*

SEC. 1. Each Grange belonging to this Council shall be entitled to representation, as follows: Seven delegates, which shall consist of the Master, three Husbandmen and three Matrons, to be elected by ballot at the annual election in December.

ARTICLE V.—*Officers.*

SEC. 1. The officers of this Council shall be such as are common to Subordinate Granges; also three Trustees and an Executive Committee of five.

SEC. 2. The officers shall be elected annually by ballot, on the 1st Tuesday of December in each year. A majority of all the votes cast shall be necessary to a choice.

ARTICLE VI.—*Laws.*

SEC. 1. This Council shall have power to make all laws necessary for its government, also to alter, repeal, or modify such laws as may be found objectionable or imperative; and alter and amend this Constitution, whenever it shall be deemed necessary by a two-thirds vote of its delegates present. Proposed amendments, alterations, or modifications, to be presented in writing and lay over until next meeting.

ARTICLE VII.—*Meetings.*

SEC. 1. The regular meetings of this Council shall be held on the first Tuesday of the months of July, October, January and April, at 10 o'clock A.M., at such places as they may from time to time designate.

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the Master and Secretary whenever it is deemed necessary for the good of the Council, by giving sufficient notice. Fifteen members shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE VIII.—*Elections.*

SEC. 1. No election will or can be called legal when any person or persons electioneer for office in this Council, or permit others to electioneer for them.

BY-LAWS.

ARTICLE I.—*Officers' Duties.*

SEC. 1. The duties of the several officers of this Council shall be such as devolve on those officers of a Subordinate Grange.

SEC. 2. It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to devise means for the advancement of the interests of the whole Order; procure favorable terms and proposals for buying and selling for Patrons and submit the same to this Council, exercise a general supervision over such proposals as may be accepted by this Council, and see that they are faithfully carried out. They shall elect one of their number as Chairman, and when deemed necessary by this Council may employ a county agent, who shall be confirmed by this Council, and his duties, responsibilities, and compensation approved.

ARTICLE II.—*Vacancies.*

SEC. 1. Vacancies in any of the offices of this Council may be filled by the Executive Committee until the next regular meeting, when an election be had to fill said vacancy.

ARTICLE III.—*Compensation.*

SEC. 1. The Executive Committee shall be allowed two dollars per day for time actually and necessarily spent in the services of the Council, except at regular meetings of the Council.

SEC. 2. All bills and accounts against this Council shall be presented in writing, and shall specify the articles or services charged for.

ARTICLE IV.

SEC. 1. The Secretary and Treasurer shall be required to give such bond for faithful performance of duty and safe-keeping of funds as shall be required and approved by the Trustees.

ARTICLE V.—*Penalties and Forfeitures.*

SEC. 1. Any Patron within the jurisdiction of this Council who shall unnecessarily divulge or publish to the outside world the private terms or prices that may be procured for him through this Council, its Committee or Agents, or shall divulge any proceedings of this Council not authorized to be made public, shall, upon reasonable proof, be subject to having such benefits suspended or withdrawn by this Council, or by the Executive Committee, in which case an appeal may be taken to this Council; such imprudent member may also be remanded by this Council or Executive Committee to his or her Subordinate Grange for suspension or expulsion from the Order.

ARTICLE VI.—*Visitors.*

SEC. 1. All Patrons in good standing, although not members of this Council, shall at all times be cordially welcomed to seats in this Council and to participate in discussions, but will not be allowed to vote.

ARTICLE VII.—*Order of Business.*

1. Opening the Council.
 2. Calling the Roll of Granges.
 3. Master appoints Committee on Credentials.
 4. Reading minutes of last meeting.
 5. Report of committees, special and standing.
 6. Report of Executive Committee.
 7. Bills and accounts.
 8. Unfinished business.
 9. New business.
 10. Report of Delegates as to progress, work, and news.
 11. Suggestions for the good of the Order.
 12. Election.
 13. Closing.
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We also give a form of By-Laws for a Subordinate Grange, not, as in any sense obligatory, but as embodying most of the necessary articles for such purpose.

BY-LAWS FOR SUBORDINATE GRANGES.

MAY BE ADOPTED OR REJECTED.

ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. This Grange shall be known and distinguished as Grange No..... of the State of.....

SEC. 2. The regular meetings of this Grange shall be held

SEC. 3. The time of meeting from the first of October to the first of April shall be..... and from the first of April to the first of October shall be

Special meetings may be called by the Master of the Grange, or in his absence by the Overseer, when deemed necessary for the good of the Grange.

SEC. 4.members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

SEC. 5. The Grange shall be opened at the above appointed time, in the Fourth Degree, if a sufficient number of members are present.

ARTICLE II.—*Membership.*

SECTION 1. The members of this Grange are all who have been or may be initiated in, or affiliated therewith, who have subscribed to the Roll Books, and who have not withdrawn, or been excluded for unworthy conduct, or non-payment of dues.

ARTICLE III.—*Officers.*

SECTION 1. The officers of this Grange shall be ranked and titled as follows : Master ; Overseer ; Lecturer ; Steward ; Assistant Steward ; Chaplain ; Treasurer ; Secretary ; Gatekeeper ; Ceres ; Flora ; Pomona ; and Lady Assistant Steward. It is their duty to see that the laws of the Order are carried out.

How Chosen.—The officers of this Grange shall be chosen annually at the last regular meeting in December, and installed at the first meeting in January.

All elections shall be by ballot.

ARTICLE IV.—*Duties of Officers.*

SECTION 1. *Master.*—It shall be the duty of the Master to preside at all meetings of the Grange ; to see that all officers and members of committees perform their respective duties as enjoined by the several charges and these By-laws ; to inspect and announce the result of all balloting and other votes of the Grange ; see that all the laws and usages of the Order are duly understood and obeyed ; to sign all orders drawn on the Treasurer with the consent and approbation of the Grange, and perform such other duties as may be required by the Ritual or Grange, properly devolving upon that office.

SEC. 2. *Overseer.*—It shall be the duty of the Overseer to assist the Master in preserving order and decorum in the Grange, preside in the absence of the Master, and perform all other duties devolving upon that office.

SEC. 3. *Lecturer.*—It shall be the duty of the Lecturer to always be prepared with some useful information either to be given verbally or read, when no regular business is before the meeting ; and see particularly that all addresses, lectures, and other information provided for the good of the Order and members of this Grange, are distributed to them, and to preside in the absence of the Master, Overseer, and Past Master.

SEC. 4. *Steward.*—It shall be the duty of the Steward to preside in the absence of the Master, Overseer, or Past Master or Lecturer ; to have charge of the Inner Gate ; to see that the field is properly arranged for labor ; the working tools in their places ; to conduct the ballot ; to provide for the introduction and accommodation of candidates.

SEC. 5. *Assistant Steward and Lady Assistant Steward.*—It shall be their duty to have charge of the candidates during initiation, and to see that the regalias are properly distributed and cared for ; also, to give all due assistance to the Steward.

SEC. 6. *Treasurer.*—It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive all moneys, giving his receipt for the same ; to keep an accurate account of said moneys, and pay them out on the order of the Master, with the consent of the Grange ; to transmit all moneys due the State Grange to the Treasurer thereof at the request of the Secretary ; to render his books, and a statement of his accounts with the Grange, to the Finance Committee when called upon to do so ; and to deliver to his successor all moneys, books, vouchers, etc., having reference to the finance of the Grange.

SEC. 7. *Secretary.*—It shall be the duty of the Secretary to record accurately all the proceedings of the Grange ; to make out all necessary returns for the State and National Granges ; to report to the Treasurer at the end of each quarter the amount due the State Grange ; to keep accounts of members with the Grange ; to receive and pay over to the Treasurer all moneys, taking his receipt therefor ; to draw and countersign all orders voted by the Grange, and to perform such other duties as may devolve upon that office.

SEC. 8. *Gatekeeper*.—It shall be the duty of the Gatekeeper to see that the Gates are properly guarded, and to perform such other duties as may be required.

ARTICLE V.—*Application for Membership.*

SECTION 1. Application for membership must be made in the form prescribed by the National Grange, and when made shall be announced in open Grange, and referred to a Committee of Investigation, consisting of three brothers or sisters, two appointed by the Master and one by the Overseer, which shall take the application in charge, and report at the next regular meeting.

ARTICLE VI.—*Fees and Dues.*

SECTION 1. The fees for conferring four degrees for males in this Grange shall be two dollars for the First Degree, and one dollar for each subsequent Degree, which shall accompany the petition.

The fees for conferring the four Degrees on women shall be fifty cents for each Degree, the money to accompany the petition in all cases.

SEC. 2. The regular dues of this Grange shall be ten (10) cents per month for each member.

ARTICLE VII.—*Committees.*

SECTION 1. All special committees, unless otherwise ordered, shall consist of three members each.

SEC. 2. The Master, on the night of his installation, shall appoint a standing committee on Finance, to consist of three members.

SEC. 3. It shall be the duty of the Committee on Finance to audit all bills and accounts previous to their being passed upon by the Grange, and they shall be authorized to examine the books and accounts of any officer, or member of any committee of the Grange, whenever they think proper, and shall report as speedily as possible on all matters they may have on hand.

SEC. 4. At the first regular meeting in each year there shall be elected by ballot three Trustees, who shall have charge of all property of the Grange, as well as all business in which the Grange shall have an interest.

ARTICLE VIII.—*Charges.*

SECTION 1. If at any time it shall appear that a member by his or her general conduct, either morally or otherwise, shall be working against the best interests of the Order, charges may be preferred against the offending member, in accordance with the provisions of the following article, and they may be expelled, or subjected to such penalties as a majority of the Grange may direct.

SEC. 2. In no case shall members of a Grange enter into litigation with each other until they shall have presented a plain statement of their differences to the Trustees of their Grange, and shall have allowed them an opportunity to adjust them if possible.

ARTICLE IX.—*Suspensions, Withdrawals, etc.*

SECTION 1. No brother of this Grange shall be suspended or expelled from membership unless charges be preferred in writing, duly specifying the offence, presented by a brother or sister in good standing, and the accused being allowed full opportunity to make his or her defence.

SEC. 2. Any member desirous of withdrawing from this Grange must pay all indebtedness thereto, and obtain the consent of the Grange.

ARTICLE X.—*Amendments.*

All propositions for amending or repealing these By-laws, or any part of them, shall be presented in writing at a regular meeting, and shall lie over until the next regular meeting, when it may be acted upon if agreed to by two-thirds of all the members present.

RULES OF ORDER.

1. When the presiding officer takes the chair, the officers and members shall take their respective stations, and at the sound of the gavel there shall be a general silence. The Grange shall then proceed to open in regular form.

2. No question shall be stated unless moved by two members, or be open for consideration unless stated by the Master. And when a question is before the Grange, no motion shall be received, unless to close; to lay on the table; the previous question; to postpone; to refer; or to amend. They shall have precedence in the order in which they are arranged, the first three of which shall be decided without debate.

3. Any member may call for a division of a question when the sense of it will permit.

4. The yeas and nays may be ordered by the Master, on the call of any member duly seconded.

5. After any question (except one of indefinite postponement) has been decided, any member who voted in the majority may, at the same or next meeting, move for a reconsideration thereof; but no discussion of the main question shall be allowed unless reconsidered.

6. No member shall speak more than once on the same subject, until all the members wishing to speak have had an opportunity to do so, or more than twice without permission from the chair. And no member, while speaking, shall name another by his or her proper name, but shall use the appropriate designation belonging to his or her standing in the Grange.

7. The Master or any member may call a brother or sister to order while speaking; when the debate shall be suspended, and the brother or sister shall not speak until the point of order be determined, unless to appeal from the chair, when he or she may use the words following, and no others: "Master, I respectfully appeal from the decision of the chair to the Grange." Whereupon the Grange shall proceed to vote on the question: "Will the Grange sustain the decision of the chair?"

8. When a brother or sister intends to speak on a question, he or she shall rise in his or her place and respectfully address his or her remarks to the Worthy Master, confining him or herself to the question, and avoid personality. Should more than one member rise to speak at the same time, the Worthy Master shall determine who is entitled to the floor.

9. When a brother or sister has been called to order by the Worthy Master for the manifestation of temper or improper feelings, he or she shall not be allowed to speak again on the subject under discussion in the Grange, at that meeting, except to apologize.

10. On the call of five members, a majority of the Grange may demand that the previous question shall be put, which shall always be in this form: "Shall the main question now be put?" And until it is decided shall preclude all amendments to the main question, and all further debate.

11. All motions or resolutions offered in the Grange shall be reduced to writing if required.

12. When standing or special committees are appointed, the individual first named is considered as the Chairman, although each has a right to elect its own Chairman. Committees are required to meet and attend to the matters assigned them with system and regularity, and not by separate consultation, or in a loose and indefinite manner.

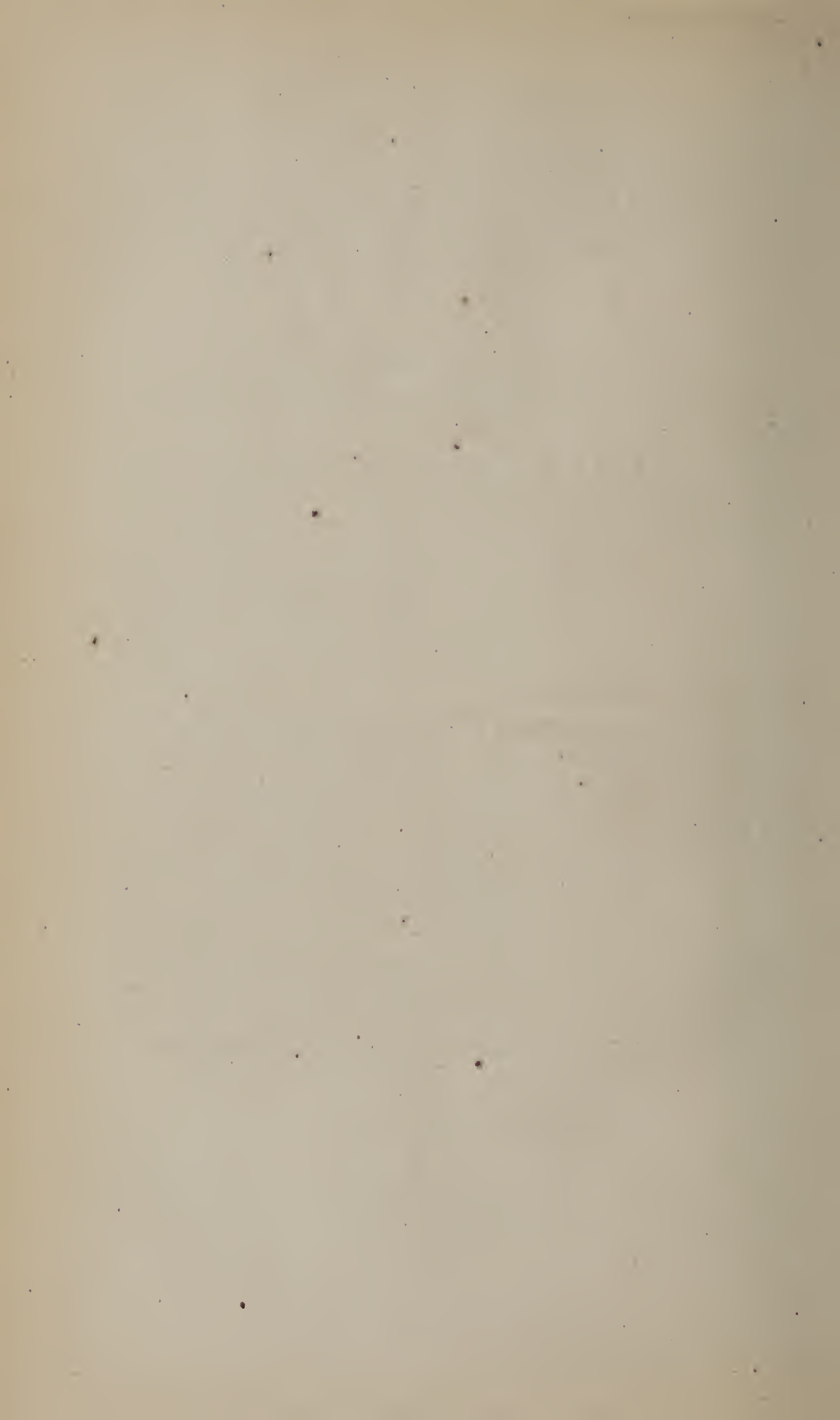
13. The Worthy Master, by virtue of his office, may attend all meetings of committees, take part in their deliberations (without voting, however), and urge them to action. In the appointment of committees, the Worthy Master, who should ever preserve a courteous and conciliatory deportment to all, not overlooking the humblest member, has many opportunities for bringing humble merit into notice, and of testing and making available the capabilities of those around him. He should carefully avoid both petulancy and favoritism, and act with strict impartiality.

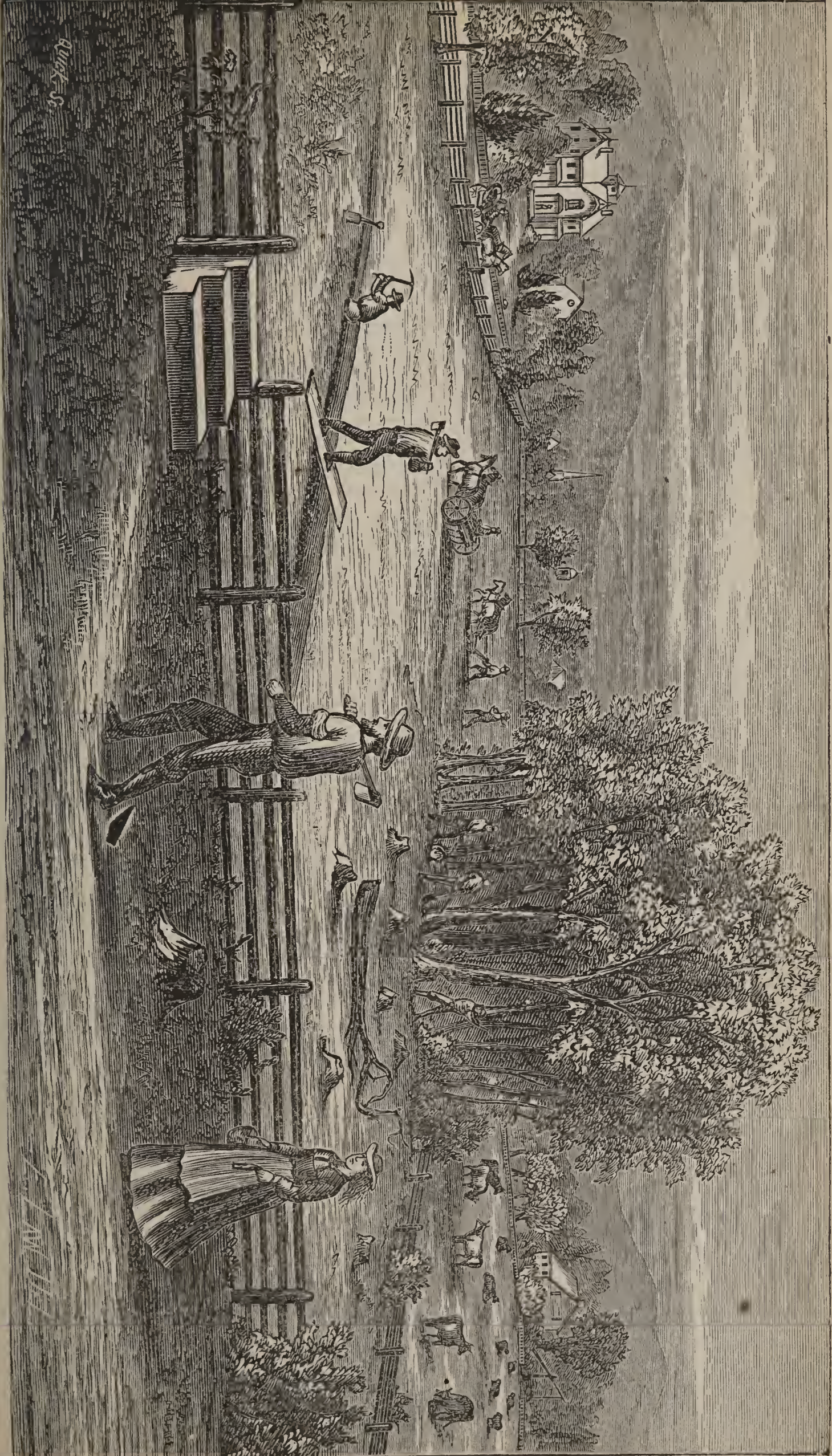
PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

The work of the Subordinate Granges has two stages or periods.

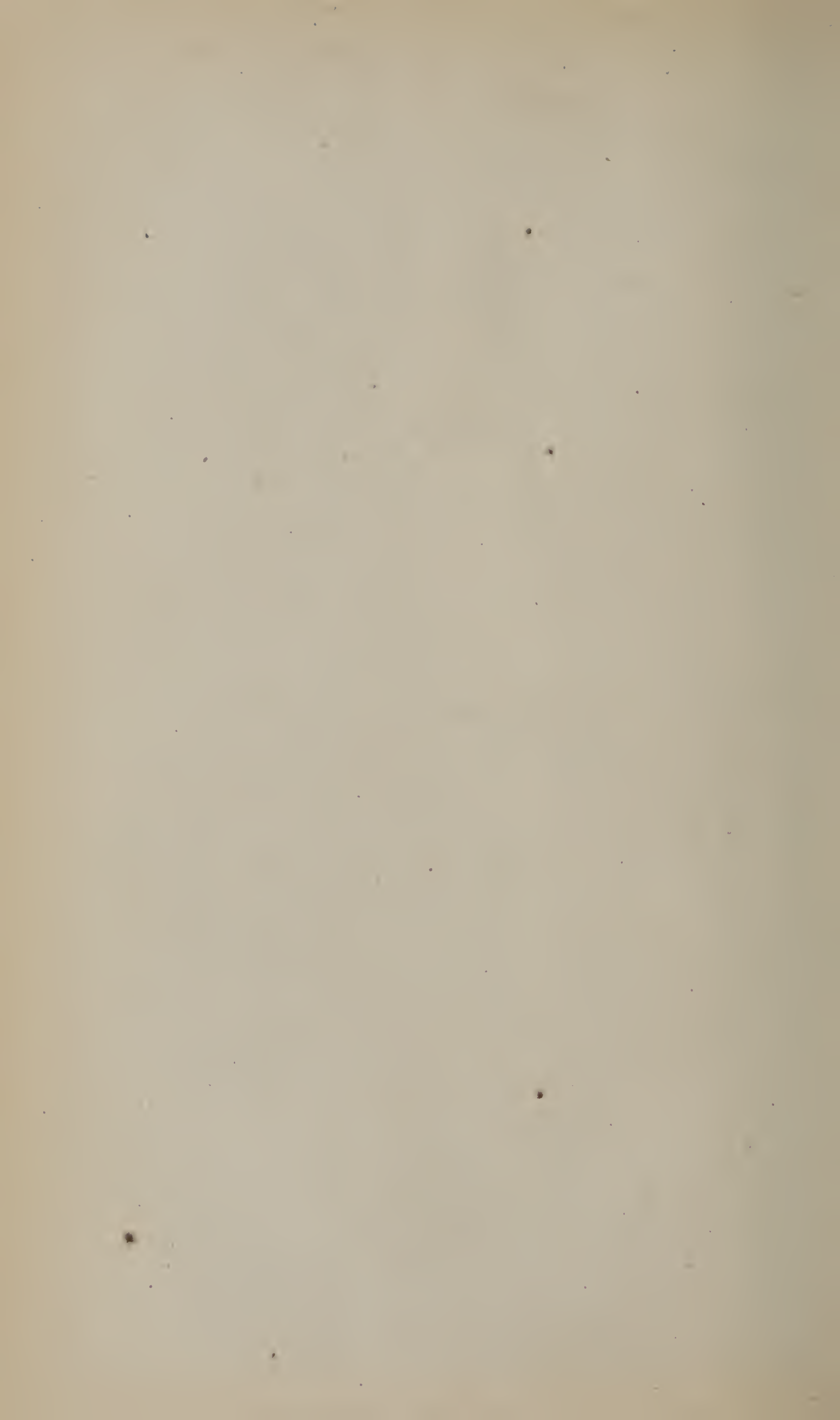
First, we organize the Granges, and study to become familiar with the work of the Grange-room. We study to take in the essence and spirit of our beautiful and elevating ritual. We also get acquainted with each other. As a people we pay too little regard to the social and fraternal element in society. There are perhaps reasons why this is so, growing out of our earnest practical life in developing a new country, but it is none the less true that our happiness and well-being would be better promoted by cultivating more fully our social natures.

After the organizing period has passed we come to the business or material phase of our work. Here we need to be governed by a large and enlightened wisdom. We are suffering from the oppression of corporations. Manufacturers combine against us, and owing to circumstances by which we are surrounded, we perhaps do not understand at present just the best and most business-like method of remedying the evil. We need then to carefully study and mature our plans before we begin to act. We talk over among ourselves what we desire to do, and compare opinions as to the best methods of arriving at results. Having perfected our plans we should be more than careful that we carry out in good faith, and in a business-like way, all agreements and contracts.





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The Grange: its Work and Mission.

THE ROUTINE WORK OF THE GRANGE.

THE Ritual and formal exercises of the Grange do not differ very greatly from those of other secret organizations in their general character. The ceremonies of initiation and admission to the several degrees, and the field, or unwritten work, are not, of course, matters to be discussed in such a work as this. We may say, however, truthfully, the social element prevails, and the feeling of brotherhood and of a purpose of fellowship and co-operation is made prominent in all. There is also the musical feature developed, even in the Ritual, to a greater extent than in most secret organizations. A very fine collection of Songs adapted to the wants and purposes of the Order has been compiled by the present Lady Assistant Steward, and as every well-regulated Grange is supposed to have a musical instrument, either piano, cabinet organ, or melodeon, in its room, and usually a number of well-trained voices among its members, this part of the exercise passes off very pleasantly.

We follow these with a few choice pieces on the farmer's life not found in Miss Hall's Collection, with the names of the tunes in which they may be sung, where these are in the "Songs of the Grange," and the tunes themselves where they are not.

We propose to contribute still farther to this praiseworthy collection by other original and soul-stirring melodies, to be introduced either in future editions of the Hand-Book, or as forming a feature of "THE GRANGE," our new monthly illustrated magazine, to be accompanied by appropriate music.

SONGS FOR THE GRANGE.

PRIZE SONG OF THE PATRONS OF HUSBANDRY.

BY MRS. M. F. TUCKER.

THE prize offered by the National Grange for a song adapted to the use of that Order has been awarded to Mrs. Tucker for the following:

'Tis ours to guard a sacred trust,
 We shape a heaven-born plan;
 The noble purpose, wise and just,
 To aid our fellow-man.
 From Maine to California's slope
 Resounds the reapers' song:
 "We come to build the nation's hope,
 To slay the giant Wrong."

Too long have Avarice and Greed,
 With coffers running o'er,
 Brought sorrow, and distress, and need,
 To Labor's humble door.
 From Maine to California's slope
 Resounds the reapers' song:
 "We come to build the nation's hope,
 To slay the giant Wrong."

A royal road to place and power
 Have rank and title been;
 We herald the auspicious hour,
 When honest Worth may win.
 From Maine to California's slope
 Resounds the reapers' song:
 "We come to build the nation's hope,
 To slay the giant Wrong."

Let every heart and hand unite
 In the benignant plan,
 The noble purpose, just and right,
 To aid our fellow-man.
 From Maine to California's slope
 Resounds the reapers' song:
 "We come to build the nation's hope,
 To slay the giant Wrong."

THE FARMER'S LIFE.

Tune, "Webb," page 72, Songs for the Grange.

1. WHOSE life is sweetest flowing,
Who's least annoyed with care?
'Tis he whom proud ambition
And gain's fierce ravings spare;
Whose hands, by patient labor,
Procure his daily bread;
On whom, through night's dark shadows,
Refreshing sleep is shed.
2. Who 'midst his kind companions
Can social cheer enjoy,
And swell the song's resounding
In bliss without alloy;
Who, after days of toiling
In summer's sultry heat,
Returns in peace at evening,
A smiling friend to meet.
3. Whose heart in God believing,
Desires beyond the grave
A life, whose heavenly glory
Forever rolls its wave;
And who, 'mid hope's bright beamings,
Surmounts earth's darksome ills,
In calm as sweet and peaceful
As lights on heavenly hills.

J. H. TOBLER.

THE MIGHT WITH THE RIGHT.

Tune, by Callcott.

1. MAY every year but draw more near
 The time when strife shall cease,
 And truth and love all hearts shall move
 To live in joy and peace.
 Now sorrow reigns and earth complains,
 For folly still her power maintains;
 But the day shall yet appear,
Chorus.—When the might with the right,
 And the truth shall be,
 And come what there may
 To stand in the way,
 That day the world shall see.
2. Let good men ne'er of truth despair,
 Though humble efforts fail:
 Oh, give not o'er, until once more
 The righteous cause prevail;
 In vain and long enduring wrong
 The weak may strive against the strong;
 But the day will surely come,
Chorus.—When the might, etc.

W. E. HICKSON.

I LOVE TO ROVE.

Tune, "Katy did, Katy didn't."—W. B. Bradbury.

1. I LOVE to rove through a region of life
 Where Enterprise frolics around,
 Where emulous spirits, with manly strife,
 Teach Labor his nimblest bound ;
 Where laughing content with a sunburnt face
 Holds dallying sport with toil,
 And mocking old Care, with his low grimace,
 Draws teeming wealth from the soil.

Chorus.—My music at night, when milking is done,
 The spinning-wheel's boom, the children's gay fun,
 The swoop of the night-hawk, the clack of the mill,
 Katy did, Katy didn't, and Whip-poor-will, Whip-poor-will.

2. I'll hie to the land where such spirits reside,
 I'll haste to the lovely and free,
 Leave fraud and suspicion to prowls by the tide,
 And fight for the wrecks of the sea.
 I'll hie to the land, where in newness of life
 Blithe Vigor runs deftly along
 And laughingly sucking the venom from strife,
 Exults and grows ruddy and strong.

Chorus.—My music at night, etc.

3. They babble of freedom in opulent marts,
 They prate of their splendor and wealth,
 But sensitive Liberty always departs,
 With Modesty, Temperance, and Health.
 Give me, then, a cottage where nature is young,
 And honest Industry resides,
 I'll laugh at all glory that ever was sung,
 And all that fools covet beside.

Chorus.—My music at night, etc.

LIVE FOR SOMETHING.

Tune, Autumn.

1. LIVE for something, be not idle,
Look about thee for employ,
Sit not down to useless dreaming.
Labor and its sweets enjoy;
Folded hands are ever weary,
Selfish hearts are never gay;
Life for thee hath many duties,
Active be, then, in thy day.
2. Scatter blessings in thy pathway;
Gentle words and cheering smiles
Better are than gold or silver,
With their grief-dispelling wiles;
As the pleasant sunshine falleth
Ever on the grateful earth,
So let sympathy and kindness
Gladden well the darkened hearth.
3. For the hearts oppressed and weary
Drop the tear of sympathy;
Whisper words of hope and comfort;
Give, and thy reward shall be
Joy unto thy soul returning,
From this perfect fountain head;
Freely as thou'st freely given
Shall the grateful light be shed.

WORK WHILE IN YOUTHFUL PRIME.

Tune, "Work," etc., by Mozart.

1. WORK while in youthful prime,
Work while the heart is gay ;
Work for the harvest time,
Work while you may.
When earth is moist with springly rain,
In furrowed fields they sow the grain,
And we in youth will cast the seed,
For later days of need.
2. Work while in youthful prime, etc. *
Fresh dews and sunshine bless the field,
Their crop the crumbling furrows yield ;
So wisdom grows, through smiles and tears
By process of the years.
3. Work while in youthful prime, etc.
In autumn days the corn they reap,
With sheaves the laboring wain they heap ;
So life, when ripening years are past,
Its harvest reaps at last.
4. Work while in youthful prime, etc.
With song they guide the creaking wain,
With song and cheer they store the grain ;
Be ours, with joy whate'er betide,
Life's harvest home to bide.

MASON'S NORMAL SINGER.

* The chorus precedes instead of following each stanza.

PLEDGED FOR THE RIGHT.

Tune, by Tucker.

1. WE stand here united in courage and will,
The cause of the right to maintain ;
With hearts true and constant, whatever may come,
We firm as the rocks will remain.

Chorus.—For the right, for the right, here determined we stand,
So pledge we the word, so join we the hand.

(Repeat the 2d line.)

2. The aim and the purpose which fire every heart,
Awake in their strength and their might,
To raise the degraded, relieve the oppressed,
And fearlessly stand for the right.

Chorus.—For the right, for the right, etc.

3. No fearing nor doubting shall enter the band,
No question of evil report ;
The nations, and people all over the land,
To us be united in heart.

Chorus.—For the right, for the right, etc.

4. Then stand here united in courage and will,
The cause of the right to maintain ;
With hearts true and constant, whatever may come,
We firm as the rocks will remain.

Chorus.—For the right, for the right, etc.

OUR COUNTRY.

Tune, Rockingham.

1. OUR COUNTRY! 'tis a glorious land,
With broad arms stretched from shore to shore,
The proud Pacific chafes her strand,
She hears the dark Atlantic roar ;
And nurtured on her ample breast,
How many a goodly prospect lies,
In Nature's wildest grandeur drest,
Enamelled with her loveliest dyes.
2. Rich prairies, decked with flowers of gold,
Like sunlit oceans roll afar ;
Broad lakes her azure heaven behold,
Reflecting clear the trembling star ;
And mighty rivers, mountain-born,
Go sweeping onward, dark and deep,
Through forests, where the bounding fawn
Beneath their sheltering branches leap.
3. And, cradled 'mid her clustering hills,
Sweet vales in dream-like beauty hide,
Where love the air with music fills,
And calm content and peace abide ;
For Plenty here her fulness pours
In rich profusion o'er the land,
And sent to seize her generous store,
There prowls no tyrant's hireling band.
4. Great God ! we thank Thee for this home,
This bounteous birth-land of the free,
Where wanderers from afar may come,
And breathe the air of liberty !
Still may her flowers, untrampled, spring,
Her harvests wave, her cities rise ;
And yet, till time shall fold his wing,
Remain earth's loveliest paradise !

PABODIE.

“COME HOME, FATHER.”

“FATHER, dear father, come home with me now !
The clock in the steeple strikes one ;
You said you were coming right home from the shop
As soon as your day’s work was done.
Our fire has gone out—our house is all dark—
And mother’s been watching since tea,
With poor brother Benny so sick in her arms,
And no one to help her but me.

Come home ! come home ! come home !
Please, father, dear father, come home.”
Hear the sweet voice of the child,
Which the night winds repeat as they roam !
Oh, who could resist the most plaintive of prayers ?
“Please, father, dear father, come home !”

“Father, dear father, come home with me now,
The clock in the steeple strikes two ;
The night has grown colder, and Benny is worse—
But he has been calling for you.
Indeed he is worse—Ma says he will die,
Perhaps before morning shall dawn ;
And this is the message she sent me to bring :
‘Come quickly, or he will be gone.’”

“Father, dear father, come home with me now,
The clock in the steeple strikes three ;
The home is so lonely—the hours are so long
For poor weeping mother and me.
Yes, we are alone—poor Benny is dead,
And gone with the angels of light ;
And these were the very last words that he said—
‘I want to kiss papa good-night.’”

THE LAND THAT WE LIVE IN !

BY A. B. MEEK.

OH ! bright is the land that we live in,
And soft blow the breezes around—
The stars make a palace of heaven,
And flowers enamel the ground !
The orange and chestnut are flinging
Their odors divine on the gale,
And the mocking-bird's melody's ringing
From bowers that circle the vale !

Then here's to the land that we live in !—
The land of the locust and lime !—
And a song for the sweet stars of heaven,
That brighten this beautiful clime !

But dearer by far to the minstrel
Than all the sweet wealth of this land
Are the maidens who dwell in its bowers,
By mountain, savanna, and strand !
And all its rich trophies were given
As tributes of beauty to these ;
And these are the stars of our heaven,—
The flowers that gladden the breeze.

* Then here's to the land that we live in !—
The land of the locust and lime !—
And a song for the sweet stars of heaven,
That brighten this beautiful clime !

'Twas hymned by a bard, that the planets
Once, charmed from their passionate home,
Assumed the fair features of women,
And dwelt in the valleys of Rome !
But sure, if a land e'er presented
Temptation to angels, 'tis ours,
And the vision of song was invented
From forms in these soft, sunny bowers !

Then here's to the land that we live in !—
The land of the locust and lime !—
And a song for the sweet stars of heaven,
That brighten this beautiful clime !

But the ritual, the field work, and the songs, are not the main objects of the meetings of the Grange; they are merely the scaffolding, the frame-work, to sustain and bring forward the more beneficent purposes of the Order. We have said, repeatedly, that one of the objects of the Grange was social culture and enjoyment; and it is a part of the plan of its founders, when the members of a Grange have become sufficiently familiar with its ritual and work, to be able to go on with these without friction or blunders; that after the preliminary exercises are over they should resolve themselves into a committee of the whole for the cultivation of their social nature—acquaintances and intimacies are thus formed which are a benefit in all the after-life; and the day of the Grange meeting becomes a red-letter day in the calendar of all its members. The cares and anxieties which wrinkle the brow, and bring deep lines around the mouth, are laid aside for the time, and a couple of hours are spent in innocent enjoyment. The younger members give recitations of choice pieces which they have committed to memory, or join in dialogues; there are conundrums and riddles to be guessed, puzzles to be solved, acted charades, tableaux, or other simple amusements in which all can take a part. There is promenading, and sometimes simple dances, in which old and young can participate.

We give herewith some exercises to aid in these amusements; and first,

SELECTIONS FOR RECITATION.

THE following pieces for recitation in the literary exercises of the Grange, will, we believe, prove acceptable to the Patrons generally, and especially so to the younger members of the Order. We hold that the Grange should be in the best sense an educational institution, an active agency in elevating and enlightening its members, and making them better and more intelligent citizens, and capable of a larger measure of usefulness to society.

THE RIDE OF COLLINS GRAVES.

*Incident of the Flood in Massachusetts, caused by the giving way of the Mill
River Dam, May 16th, 1874.*

BY JOHN BOYLE O'REILLY.

No song of a soldier riding down
To the raging fight from Winchester town ;
No song of a time that shook the earth
With the nation's throe at a nation's birth ;
But the song of a brave man, free from fear
As Sheridan's self or Paul Revere ;
Who risked what they risked—free from strife
And its promise of glorious pay—his life.

The peaceful valley has waked and stirred,
And the answering echoes of life are heard ;
The dew still clings to the trees and grass,
And the early toilers smiling pass,
As they glance aside at the white-walled homes,
Or up the valley, where merrily comes
The brook that sparkles in diamond rills
As the sun comes over the Hampshire hills.

What was it that passed like an ominous breath—
Like a shiver of fear or a touch of death ?
What was it ? The valley is peaceful still,
And the leaves are afire on the top of the hill ;
It was not a sound nor a thing of sense,
But a pain, like the pang of the short suspense
That wraps the being of those who see
At their feet the gulf of Eternity.

The air of the valley has felt the chill ;
The workers pause at the door of the mill ;
The house-wife, keen to the shivering air,
Arrests her foot on the cottage stair,
Instinctive taught by the mother-love,
And thinks of the sleeping ones above.

Why start the listeners ? Why does the course
Of the mill-stream widen ? Is it a horse—
Hark to the sound of his hoofs !—they say,
That gallops so wildly Williamsburg way ?

God ! what was that, like a human shriek
 From the winding valley ? Will nobody speak ?
 Will nobody answer those women who cry
 As the awful warnings thunder by ?

Whence come they ? Listen ! And now they hear
 The sound of the galloping horse-hoofs near ;
 They watch the trend of the vale, and see
 The rider who thunders so menacingly,
 With waving arms and warning scream,
 To the home-filled banks of the valley stream.
 He draws no rein, but shakes the street
 With a shout and the ring of the galloping feet,
 And this the cry that he flings to the wind :
“ To the hills for your lives ! The flood is behind.”

He cries and is gone ; but they know the worst—
 The treacherous Williamsburg dam has burst !
 The basin that nourished their happy homes
 Is changed to a demon. It comes ! It comes !

A monster in aspect, with shaggy front
 Of shattered dwellings, to take the brunt
 Of the dwellings they shatter—white-maned and hoarse.
 The merciless terror fills the course
 Of the narrow valley, and rushing raves,
 With Death on the first of its hissing waves,
 Till cottage and street and crowded mill
 Are crumbled and crushed.

But onward still,
 In front of the roaring flood is heard
 The galloping horse and the warning word.
 Thank God, that brave man's life is spared !
 From Williamsburg town he nobly dared
 To race with the flood and to take the road
 In front of the terrible swath it mowed.
 For miles it thundered and crashed behind,
 But he looked ahead with a steadfast mind.
“ They must be warned ! ” was all he said,
 As away on his terrible ride he sped.

When heroes are called for, bring the crown
 To this Yankee rider ; send him down
 On the stream of time with the Curtius old ;
 His deed, as the Roman's, was brave and bold,
 And the tale can as noble a thrill awake,
 For he offered his life for the people's sake.

GUILTY, OR NOT GUILTY.

BY F. SHERMAN SMITH.

SHE stood at the bar of justice,
A creature wan and wild,
In form too small for a woman,
In feature too old for a child.
For a look so worn and pathetic
Was stamped on her pale young face,
It seemed long years of suffering
Must have left that silent trace.

"Your name," said the judge, as he eyed her
With kindly look, yet keen,
"Is"—"Mary McGuire, if you please, sir."
"And your age?"—"I am turned fifteen."
"Well, Mary"—and then from a paper
He slowly and gravely read—
"You are charged here—I'm sorry to say it—
With stealing three loaves of bread.

"You look not like an offender,
And I hope that you can show
The charge to be false. Now, tell me,
Are you guilty of this, or no?"
A passionate burst of weeping
Was at first her sole reply,
But she dried her tears in a moment
And looked in the judge's eye.

"I will tell you just how it was, sir.
My father and mother are dead,
And my little brothers and sisters
Were hungry, and asked me for bread.
At first I earned it for them
By working hard all day,
But somehow the times were bad, sir,
And the work all fell away.

"I could get no more employment,
The weather was bitter cold,
The young ones cried and shivered
(Little Johnnie's but four years old)—

So, what was I to do, sir?
 I am guilty, but do not condemn.
 I *took*—oh! was it *stealing*?—
 The bread to give to them.”

Every man in the court-room—
 Gray-beard and thoughtless youth—
 Knew, as he looked upon her,
 That the prisoner spake the truth.
 Out from their pockets came kerchiefs,
 Out from their eyes sprung tears,
 And out from old faded wallets
 Treasures hoarded for years.

The judge's face was a study—
 The strangest you ever saw—
 As he cleared his throat and murmured
Something about the *law*.
 For one so learned in such matters—
 So wise in dealing with men,
 He seemed, on a simple question,
 Sorely puzzled just then.

But no one blamed him or wondered
 When, at last, these words they heard:
 “The sentence of this young prisoner
 Is, for the present, deferred.”
 And no one blamed or wondered
 When he went to her and smiled,
 And tenderly led from the court-room,
 Himself, the “guilty” child.

A VISION.

BY JOHN H. BONER, THE NORTH CAROLINA POET.

I WAS given a power of vision
 To see through roof and wall
 Into the secret chambers
 Of hovel and of hall.
 And the night was growing late;
 The hour for calm repose
 Had come for those whose pillows
 Were not beset by woes.
 I saw that doves alighted
 On many a slumbering breast,
 While hawks with beak and talon
 Flew down upon the rest.

And I saw the doves' wings folded
On couches fair and grand,
But the hawks flew into the dwellings
Of the humblest in the land.

And the doves cooed, "Slumber sweetly,"
And they cooed, "Rude care, depart,"
But the hawk sat still and buried
Its crooked claws in the heart,

Till the face of the tortured sleeper
Depicted pains and fears,
And mothers felt for their children,
Moaning and shedding tears.

A light shone from above me,
And looking whence it came
I saw an angel through the stars
Come down with sword of flame.

Her glorious presence brightened
The seas and all the land.
She flew to earth and gave her sword
Into the outstretched hand

Of one who stood blindfolded,
With scales, as if to weigh,
And said, "Keep watch—in frenzy
They soon may seek to slay."

Then vanished both. I waited
For dawning of the day.
At last it came. The sleepers woke,
And some began to pray,

Giving thanks for stores of plenty,
And short the prayers they said,
But a wild heart-rending cry arose
From earth to heaven for bread.

It came from thousands of voices;
"O God Almighty," they said,
"We are starving—we and our children—
We only ask for bread."

I awoke; but the dream and the vision
Are with me all the day,
And I hear the thousands of voices
Continue to plead and pray.

A FOREST HYMN.—W. C. BRYANT.

THE groves were God's first temples. Ere man learned
To hew the shaft, and lay the architrave,
And spread the roof above them,—ere he framed
The lofty vault, to gather and roll back
The sound of anthems; in the darkling wood,
Amid the cool and silence, he knelt down,
And offered to the Mightiest solemn thanks
And supplication.

For his simple heart
Might not resist the sacred influences
Which, from the stilly twilight of the place,
And from the gray old trunks that high in heaven
Mingled their mossy boughs, and from the sound
Of the invisible breath that swayed at once
All their green tops, stole over him, and bowed
His spirit with the thought of boundless power
And inaccessible majesty.

Ah, why
Should we, in the world's riper years, neglect
God's ancient sanctuaries, and adore
Only among the crowd, and under roofs
That our frail hands have raised? Let me, at least,
Here, in the shadow of this ancient wood,
Offer one hymn—thrice happy if it find
Acceptance in his ear.

Father, thy hand
Hath reared these venerable columns; thou
Didst weave this verdant roof. Thou didst look down
Upon the naked earth, and, forthwith, rose
All these fair ranks of trees. They, in thy sun,
Budded, and shook their green leaves in thy breeze,
And shot towards heaven. The century-living crow,
Whose birth was in their tops, grew old and died
Among their branches, till, at last, they stood,

As now they stand, massy, and tall, and dark,
Fit shrine for humble worshipper to hold
Communion with his Maker.

These dim vaults,
These winding aisles, of human pomp or pride
Report not. No fantastic carvings show
The boast of our vain race to change the form
Of thy fair works. But thou art here—thou fill'st
The solitude. Thou art in the soft winds
That run along the summit of these trees
In music; thou art in the cooler breath
That from the inmost darkness of the place
Comes, scarcely felt; the barky trunks, the ground,
The fresh, moist ground, are all instinct with thee.
Here is continual worship; nature, here,
In the tranquillity that thou dost love,
Enjoys thy presence.

Noiselessly, around,
From perch to perch, the solitary bird
Passes; and yon clear spring, that, midst its herbs,
Wells softly forth, and, wandering, steeps the roots
Of half the mighty forest, tells no tale
Of all the good it does. Thou hast not left
Thyself without a witness, in these shades,
Of thy perfections. Grandeur, strength, and grace
Are here to speak of thee.

This mighty oak,
By whose immovable stem I stand and seem
Almost annihilated,—not a prince
In all that proud old world beyond the deep
E'er wore his crown as loftily as he
Wears the green coronal of leaves with which
Thy hand has graced him. Nestled at his root
Is beauty, such as blooms not in the glare
Of the broad sun. That delicate forest flower
With scented breath, and look so like a smile,
Seems, as it issues from the shapeless mould,
An emanation of the indwelling Life,
A visible token of the upholding Love,
That are the soul of this wide universe.

My heart is awed within me when I think
 Of the great miracle that still goes on,
 In silence, round me—the perpetual work
 Of thy creation, finished, yet renewed
 Forever. Written on thy works I read
 The lesson of thy own eternity.
 Lo! all grow old and die—but see again
 How on the faltering footsteps of decay
 Youth presses—ever gay and beautiful youth,
 In all its beautiful forms. These lofty trees
 Wave not less proudly that their ancestors
 Moulder beneath them.

Oh, there is not lost

One of earth's charms: upon her bosom yet,
 After the flight of untold centuries,
 The freshness of her far beginning lies,
 And yet shall lie. Life mocks the idle hate
 Of his arch enemy Death—yea, seats himself
 Upon the tyrant's throne, the sepulchre,
 And of the triumphs of his ghastly foe
 Makes his own nourishment. For he came forth
 From thine own bosom, and shall have no end.

There have been holy men who hid themselves
 Deep in the woody wilderness, and gave
 Their lives to thought and prayer, till they outlived
 The generation born with them, nor seemed
 Less aged than the hoary trees and rocks
 Around them;—and there have been holy men
 Who deemed it were not well to pass life thus.
 But let me often to these solitudes
 Retire, and in thy presence reassure
 My feeble virtue. Here its enemies,
 The passions, at thy plainer footsteps shrink
 And tremble and are still.

O God! when thou

Dost scare the world with tempests, set on fire
 The heavens with falling thunderbolts, or fill
 With all the waters of the firmament

The swift dark whirlwind that uproots the woods
 And drowns the villages ; when, at thy call,
 Uprises the great deep and throws himself
 Upon the continent, and overwhelms
 Its cities,—who forgets not, at the sight
 Of these tremendous tokens of thy power,
 His pride, and lays his strife and folly by ?
 Oh, from these sterner aspects of thy face
 Spare me and mine, nor let us need the wrath
 Of the mad unchained elements to teach
 Who rules them. Be it ours to meditate,
 In these calm shades, thy milder majesty,
 And to the beautiful order of thy works
 Learn to conform the order of our lives.

THE INFINITY OF THE UNIVERSE.

[THIS, one of the most exquisite descriptions in the language, is one of the poems or dreams of the German poet, Jean Paul Richter, but has been transfused into glowing English by Thomas De Quincey :—EDITOR.]

“God called up from dreams a man into the vestibule of Heaven, saying, ‘Come thou hither and see the glories of My Kingdom,’ and to the angels that stood around His throne, He said : ‘Take him ! Strip from him the robes of flesh, cleanse his vision, and put a new breath into his nostrils ; only touch not with any change his human heart, the heart that weeps and trembles.’ It was done, and, with a mighty angel for his guide, the man stood ready for his infinite voyage ; and from the terraces of Heaven, without sound or farewell, on a sudden they swept into infinite space. Sometimes, with the solemn flight of angel wings, they passed through Zaharas of darkness, through wildernesses of death, that divided the worlds of life ; sometimes they passed over thresholds that were quickening under prophetic motions from God ; then, from beyond distances that are counted only in Heaven, light dawned as through a shapeless film ; by unutterable pace they passed to the light, the light by unutter-

able pace passed them. In a moment the blaze of suns was upon them, in a moment the rush of planets was around them.

“Then came eternities of twilight that revealed, but were not revealed; on the right hand and on the left, towered gigantic constellations, that by self-repetitions and answers from afar, that by counter-positions, built up triumphal gateways whose archways, whose architraves, horizontal, upright, rested, rose, at altitude of spans that seemed ghostly from infinitude; without measure were the architraves, past number the archways, beyond memory the gates. Within were stairs that scaled the eternities around; above was below, and below was above, to man stripped of gravitating body. Depth was swallowed up in height insurmountable; height was swallowed up in depth unfathomable. On a sudden, as thus they rode from infinite to infinite, on a sudden, as thus they tilted over abysmal worlds, a mighty cry arose that systems more mysterious, that worlds more billowy, other lights, other depths, were coming, were nearing, were at hand.

“Then the man sighed and stopped, shuddered and wept. His overladen heart uttered itself in tears, and he said: ‘Angel, I will go no farther, for the spirit of man acheth with this infinity. Insufferable is the glory of God. Let me lie down, and hide me in the grave from the persecution of the Infinite, for end I see there is none.’ And from all the listening stars that shone around there issued a choral voice: ‘The man speaks truly. End is there none that ever yet we heard of.’ ‘End is there none?’ the angel solemnly demanded: ‘Is there indeed no end, and is this the sorrow that kills you?’ But no voice answered, that he might answer himself. Then the angel threw up his glorious hands to the heaven of heavens, saying, ‘End is there none to the Universe of God! Lo! also, there is no beginning!’”

THE MAD MARCH WIND.

THE wind one morning sprang up from sleep,
Saying, “Now for a frolic! now for a leap!
Now for a mad-cap galloping chase!
I’ll make a commotion in every place!”

So it swept with a bustle right through a great town,
Cracking the signs and scattering down .



CULTIVATOR AND SHEPHERDESS.

Shutters; and whisking, with merciless squalls,
Old women's bonnets and gingerbread stalls.
There never was heard a much lustier shout,
As the apples and oranges trundled about;
And the urchins that stand with their thievish eyes
Forever on watch, ran off each with a prize.
Then away to the field it went, blustering and humming
And the cattle all wondered whatever was coming;
It plucked by the tails the grave matronly cows,
And tossed the colts' manes all over their brows;
Till, offended at such an unusual salute,
They all turned their backs and stood sulky and mute.

So on it went capering and playing its pranks,
Whistling with reeds on the broad river's banks,
Puffing the birds as they sat on the spray,
Or the traveller grave on the king's highway.
It was not too nice to hustle the bags
Of the beggar, and flutter his dirty rags;
'Twas so bold that it feared not to play its joke
With the doctor's wig or the gentleman's cloak.
Through the forest it roared, and cried, gayly, "Now,
You sturdy old oaks, I'll make you bow!"
And it made them bow without more ado,
Or it cracked their great branches through and through.

Then it rushed like a monster on cottage and farm,
Striking their dwellers with sudden alarm;
And they ran out like bees in a midsummer swarm;
There were dames with their 'kerchiefs tied over their caps,
To see if their poultry were free from mishaps;
The turkeys they gobbled, the geese screamed aloud,
And the hens crept to roost in a terrified crowd;
There was rearing of ladders, and logs laying on,
Where the thatch from the roof threatened soon to be gone.

But the wind had swept on, and had met in a lane
With a schoolboy, who panted and struggled in vain;
For it tossed him and twirled him, then passed, and he stood,
With his hat in a pool and his shoes in the mud.

Then away went the wind in its holiday glee,
And now it was far on the billowy sea,
And the lordly ships felt its staggering blow,
And the little boats darted to and fro.

But lo ! it was night, and it sank to rest
On the sea-bird's rock in the gleaming west,
Laughing to think, in its fearful fun,
How little of mischief it had done.

WILLIAM HOWITT.

JERUSALEM BY MOONLIGHT.

THE broad moon lingers on the summit of Mount Olivet, but its beam has long left the garden of Gethsemane and the tomb of Absalom, the waters of Kedron and the dark abyss of Jehoshaphat. Full falls its splendor, however, on the opposite city, vivid and refined in its silver blaze. A lofty wall, with turrets and towers, and frequent gates, undulates with the unequal ground which it covers, as it encircles the lost capital of Jehovah. It is a city of hills, far more famous than those of Rome ; for all Europe has heard of Sion and of Calvary, while the Arab and the Assyrian, and the tribes and nations beyond, are ignorant of the Capitolian and Aventine Mounts.

The broad steep of Sion, crowned with the tower of David ; nearer still, Mount Moriah, with the gorgeous temple of the God of Abraham, but built, alas ! by the child of Hagar, and not by Sarah's chosen one ; close to its cedars and its cypresses, its lofty spires and airy arches, the moonlight falls upon Bethesda's pool ; farther on, entered by the gate of St. Stephen, the eye, though 'tis the noon of night, traces with ease the Street of Grief, a long, winding ascent to a vast cupolaed pile that now covers Calvary, called the Street of Grief, because there the most illustrious of the human as well as of the Hebrew race, the descendant of King David, and the divine Son of the most favored of women, twice sank under that burden of suffering and shame, which is now throughout all Christendom the emblem of triumph and of honor ; passing over groups and masses of houses built of stone, with terraced roofs, or surmounted with small domes, we reach the hill of Salem, where Melchisedek built his mystic citadel ; and still remains the hill of Scopus, where Titus gazed upon Jerusalem on the eve of his final assault. Titus destroyed the temple. The religion of Judea has in turn subverted the fanes which were raised to his father and to himself in their imperial capital ; and the God of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob is now worshipped before every altar in Rome.

The moon has sunk behind the Mount of Olives, and the stars in the darker sky shine doubly bright over the sacred city. The all-pervading

stillness is broken by a breeze that seems to have travelled over the plain of Sharon from the sea. It wails among the tombs, and sighs among the cypress groves. The palm-tree trembles as it passes, as if it were a spirit of woe.

Is it the breeze that has travelled over the plain of Sharon from the sea? Or is it the haunting voice of prophets mourning over the city that they could not save? Their spirits surely would linger on the land where their Creator had deigned to dwell, and over whose impending fate Omnipotence had shed human tears. Who can but believe that, at the midnight hour, from the summit of the Ascension, the great departed of Israel assemble to gaze upon the battlements of their mystic city? There might be counted heroes and sages, who need shrink from no rivalry with the brightest and the wisest of other lands; but the law-giver of the time of the Pharaohs, whose laws are still obeyed; the monarch whose reign has ceased for three thousand years, but whose wisdom is a proverb in all nations of the earth; the teacher whose doctrines have modelled civilized Europe; the greatest of legislators, the greatest of administrators, and the greatest of reformers; what race, extinct or living, can produce three such men as these?

The last light is extinguished in the village of Bethany. The wailing breeze has become a moaning wind; a white film spreads over the purple sky; the stars are veiled, the stars are hid; all becomes as dark as the waters of Kedron and the valley of Jehoshaphat. The tower of David merges into obscurity; no longer glitter the minarets of the mosque of Omar; Bethesda's angelic waters, the gate of Stephen, the street of sacred sorrow, the hill of Salem, and the heights of Scopas, can no longer be discerned. Alone in the increasing darkness, while the very line of the walls gradually eludes the eye, the church of the Holy Sepulchre is a beacon-light.—BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

THE OLD VILLAGE CHOIR.

I HAVE fancied sometimes the Bethel-bent beam
That trembled to earth in the Patriarch's dream,
Was a ladder of song in that wilderness rest
From the pillow of stone to the blue of the Blest,
And the angels descending to dwell with us here,
“Old Hundred” and “Corinth,” and “China” and “Mear.”

All the hearts are not dead nor under the sod
That those breaths can blow open to Heaven and God.
Ah, "Silver Street" flows by a bright shining road—
Oh, not to the *hymns* that in harmony flowed,
But the sweet human psalms of the old-fashioned choir,
To the girl that sang alto, the girl that sang air.

"Let us sing to God's praise!" the minister said;
All the psalm-books at once fluttered open at "York,"
Sunned their long dotted wings in the words that he read,
While the leader leaped into the tune just ahead,
And politely picked up the key-note with a fork,
And the vicious old viol went growling along
At the heels of the girls in the rear of the song.

Oh, I need not a wing—bid no genii come
With a wonderful web from Arabian loom,
To bear me again up the river of Time,
When the world was in rhythm and life was its rhyme,
And the stream of the years flowed so noiseless and narrow
That across it there floated the song of a sparrow;
For a sprig of green caraway carries me there,
To the old village church and the old village choir,
Where clear of the floor my feet slowly swung
And timed the sweet pulse of the praise that they sung,
Till the glory aslant from the afternoon sun
Seemed the rafters of gold in God's temple begun!

You may smile at the nasals of old Deacon Brown,
Who followed by scent till he ran the tune down,
And dear sister Green, with more goodness than grace,
Rose and fell on the tunes as she stood in her place,
And where "Coronation" exultantly flows,
Tried to reach the high notes on the tips of her toes!
To the land of the leal they have gone with their song,
Where the choir and the chorus together belong.
Oh! be lifted, ye gates! Let me hear them again,
Blessed song! Blessed singers! forever, Amen.

BENJAMIN F. TAYLOR.

"JONES."

I KNEW a man, and he lived in Jones—
Which Jones is a county of red hills and stones,
And he lived pretty much by getting of loans,
And his mules were nothing but skin and bones,
And his hogs were as flat as his corn-bread pones,
And he had 'bout a thousand acres of land.

This man—and his name it was also Jones—
He swore that he'd leave them old red hills and stones,
For he couldn't make nothin' but yellowish cotton,
And little of that, and his fences were rotten,
And what little corn he had, *that* was boughten,
And he couldn't get a living from the land.

And the longer he swore the madder he got,
And he rose and he walked to the stable lot,
And he halloosed to Tom to come there and hitch,
For to emigrate somewhere where land was rich,
And to quit raising cock-burrs, thistles, and sich,
And wasting their time on barren land.

So him and Tom they hitched up the mules,
Protesting that folks were mighty big fools
That 'ud stay in Georgia their lifetime out,
Just scratching a living, when all of them mought
Get places in Texas, where cotton would sprout
By the time you could plant it in the land.

And he drove by a house where a man named Brown
Was living, not far from the edge of the town,
And he bantered Brown for to buy his place,
And said that seeing as money was skace,
And seeing as sheriffs were hard to face,
Two dollars an acre would get the land.

They closed at a dollar and fifty cents,
And Jones he bought him a wagon and tents,
And loaded his corn, and his women, and truck,
And moved to Texas, which it took
His entire pile, with the best of luck,
To get there and get him a little land.

But Brown moved out on the old Jones farm,
And he rolled up his breeches and bared his arm,
And he picked all the rocks from off'n the ground,
And he rooted it up and ploughed it down,
And sowed his corn and wheat in the land.

Five years glid by, and Brown, one day,
(Who had got so fat that he wouldn't weigh,)
Was a sitting down, sorter lazily
To the grandest dinner you ever did see,
When one of the children jumped on his knee
And says, "Yan's Jones, which you bought his land."

And there was Jones, standing out at the fence,
And he hadn't no wagon, nor mules, nor tents,
For he had left Texas afoot and come
To Georgia to see if he couldn't get some
Employment, and he was looking as hum-
Ble as if he had never owned any land.

But Brown he asked him in, and he sot
Him down to his victuals smoking hot,
And when he had filled himself and the floor,
Brown looked at him sharp and rose and swore
That "whether men's land was rich or poor,
There was more in the *man* than there was in the *land*."

ONE NICHE THE HIGHEST.

THE scene opens with a view of the great Natural Bridge in Virginia. There are three or four lads standing in the channel below, looking up with awe to that vast arch of unhewn rocks, which the Almighty bridged over those everlasting butments, "when the morning stars sang together." The little piece of sky spanning those measureless piers is full of stars, although it is mid-day.

It is almost five hundred feet from where they stand, up those perpendicular bulwarks of limestone, to the key-rock of that vast arch, which appears to them only of the size of a man's head. The silence of death is rendered more impressive by the little stream that falls from rock to rock down the channel. The sun is darkened, and the boys have unconsciously uncovered their heads, as if standing in the presence-chamber of the Majesty of the whole earth.

At last this feeling begins to wear away ; they begin to look around them ; they find that others have been there before them. They see the names of hundreds cut in the limestone buttments. A new feeling comes over their young hearts, and their knives are in their hands in an instant. "What man has done, man can do," is their watchword, while they draw themselves up, and carve their names a foot above those of a hundred full-grown men who have been there before them.

They are all satisfied with this feat of physical exertion, except one, whose example illustrates perfectly the forgotten truth, that there is no royal road to intellectual eminence. This ambitious youth sees a name just above his reach—a name that will be green in the memory of the world, when those of Alexander, Cæsar, and Bonaparte shall be lost in oblivion. It was the name of Washington.

Before he marched with Braddock to that fatal field, he had been there, and left his name a foot above all his predecessors. It was a glorious thought of the boy, to write his name side by side with that of the great father of his country. He grasped his knife with a firmer hand, and clinging to a little jutting crag, he cuts again into the limestone, about a foot above where he stands ; he then reaches up and cuts another for his hands.

'Tis a dangerous adventure ; but as he puts his feet and hands into those gains, and draws himself up carefully to his full length, he finds himself a foot above every name chronicled in that mighty wall. While his companions are regarding him with concern and admiration, he cuts his name in rude capitals, large and deep, into that flinty album.

His knife is still in his hand, and strength in his sinews, and a new created aspiration in his heart. Again he cuts another niche, and again he carves his name in larger capitals. This is not enough. Heedless of the entreaties of his companions, he cuts and climbs again. The gradations of his ascending scale grow wider apart. He measures his length at every gain he cuts. The voices of his friends wax weaker and weaker, till their words are finally lost on his ear.

He now, for the first time, cast a look beneath him. Had that glance lasted a moment, that moment would have been his last. He clings with a convulsive shudder to his little niche in the rock. An awful abyss awaits his almost certain fall. He is faint with severe exertion, and trembling from the sudden view of the dreadful destruction to which he is exposed. His knife is half worn away to the haft. He can hear the voices, but not the words, of his terror-stricken companions below. What a moment ! What a meagre chance to escape destruction ! There is no retracing his steps. It is impossible to put his

hand into the same niche with his feet, and retain his slender hold a moment.

His companions instantly perceive this new and fearful dilemma, and await his fall with emotions that "freeze their young blood." He is too high, too faint, to ask for his father and mother, and brothers and sisters, to come and witness or avert his destruction. But one of his companions anticipates his desire. Swift as the wind, he bounds down the channel, and the situation of the fated boy is told upon his father's hearth-stone.

Minutes of almost eternal length roll on, and there are hundreds standing in that rocky channel, and hundreds on the bridge above, all holding their breath, and awaiting the fearful catastrophe. The poor boy hears the hum of new and numerous voices both above and below. He can distinguish the tones of his father, who is shouting, with all the energy of despair, "William! William! don't look down. Your mother, and Henry, and Harriet, are all here, praying for you! Don't look down! Keep your eye towards the top!"

The boy didn't look down. His eye is fixed like a flint towards heaven, and his young heart on Him who reigns there. He grasps again his knife. He cuts another niche, and another foot is added to the hundreds that remove him from the reach of human help from below. How carefully he uses his wasting blade! How anxiously he selects the softest places in that vast pier! How he avoids every flinty grain! How he economizes his physical powers, resting a moment at each gain he cuts! How every motion is watched from below! There stand his father, mother, brother and sister, on the very spot, where, if he falls, he will not fall alone.

The sun is half way down the west. The lad has made fifty additional niches in that mighty wall, and now finds himself directly under the middle of that vast arch of rocks, earth, and trees. He must cut his way in a new direction, to get from under this overhanging mountain. The inspiration of hope is dying in his bosom; its vital heat is fed by the increasing shouts of hundreds, perched upon cliffs and trees, and others who stand with ropes in their hands on the bridge above, or with ladders below.

Fifty more gains must be cut before the longest rope can reach him. His wasting blade strikes again into the limestone. The boy is emerging painfully, foot by foot, from under that lofty arch. Spliced ropes are ready in the hands of those who are leaning over the outer edge of the bridge. Two minutes more and all must be over. The blade is worn to the last half inch. The boy's head reels; his eyes are starting

from their sockets. His last hope is dying in his heart ; his life must hang on the next gain he cuts. That niche is his last.

At the last faint gash he makes, his knife—his faithful knife—falls from his little nerveless hand, and ringing along the precipice, falls at his mother's feet. An involuntary groan of despair runs like a death knell through the channel below, and all is still as the grave. At the height of nearly three hundred feet, the devoted boy lifts his hopeless heart, and closes his eyes to commend his soul to God !

'Tis but a moment—there ! one foot swings off—he is reeling—trembling—toppling over into eternity ! Hark ! a shout falls on his ear from above ! The man who is lying with half his length over the bridge, has caught a glimpse of the boy's head and shoulders. Quick as thought the noosed rope is within reach of the sinking youth. No one breathes. With a faint convulsive effort, the swooning boy drops his arms into the noose. Darkness comes over him, and with the words God—Mother—whispered on his lips just loud enough to be heard in heaven—the tightening rope lifts him out of his last shallow niche. Not a lip moves while he is dangling over that fearful abyss ; but when a sturdy Virginian reaches down and draws up the lad, and holds him up in his arms before the tearful, breathless multitude, such shouting—such leaping and weeping for joy—never greeted the ear of a human being so recovered from the yawning gulf of eternity.—ELIHU BURRITT.

KATIE LEE AND WILLIE GRAY.

Two brown heads with tossing curls,
Red lips shutting over pearls,
Bare feet, white and wet with dew,
Two eyes black, and two eyes blue,
Little boy and girl were they,
Katie Lee and Willie Gray.

They were standing where a brook,
Bending like a shepherd's crook,
Flashed its silver, and thick ranks
Of willow fringed its banks—
Half in thought and half in play,
Katie Lee and Willie Gray.

They had cheeks like cherries red ;
He was taller, 'most a head ;
She, with arms like wreaths of snow,
Swung a basket to and fro
(As they loitered, half in play),
Chattering to Willie Gray.

"Pretty Katie," Willie said,—
And there came a dash of red
Through the brownness of the cheek,—
"Boys are strong and girls are weak,
And I'll carry, so I will,
Katie's basket up the hill."

Katie answered with a laugh,
"You shall carry only half ;"
Then said, tossing back her curls,
"Boys are weak as well as girls."
Do you think that Katie guessed
Half the wisdom she expressed ?

Men are only boys grown tall ;
Hearts don't change much, after all.
And when, long years from that day,
Katie Lee and Willie Gray
Stood *again* beside the brook,
Bending like a shepherd's crook—

Is it strange that Willie said,
While again a dash of red
Crowned the brownness of his cheek,
"I am strong and you are weak ;
Life is but a slippery steep,
Hung with shadows cold and deep.

"Will you trust me, Katie, dear—
Walk beside me without fear ?
May I carry, if I will,
All your burdens up the hill ?"
And she answered with a laugh,
"No ; but you may carry half."

Close beside the little brook,
Bending like a shepherd's crook,
Working with its silver hands,
Late and early at the sands,
Stands a cottage where to-day
Katie lives with Willie Gray.

In the porch she sits, and lo !
Swinging a basket to and fro,
Vastly different from the one
That she swung in years ago—
This is long, and deep and wide,
And has rockers at the side.

J. H. PIXLEY.

THREE LITTLE GIRLS.

ONE, two, three !

Don't you see ?

All little girlyes belonging to me.
There's Katy so busy, and mischievous Lou,
And Elsie, who nothing as yet can do
But eat, and sleep, and kick out her feet,
And make believe angry, and look very sweet ;
" A terrible trouble," some folks say ;—
Their father and I think another way.

Like a miser his store,

We count o'er and o'er

Our treasures, though well we know them before,
And number them out like houses and lands ;
Six little feet, and six little hands,
Two that are gray and four blue eyes,
Three little heads *we* think wondrous wise,
Three rosy faces with each a small nose,
Thirty fat fingers and thirty fat toes.

They look very quiet,

But, I'll not deny it,

They're capable, sometimes, of making a riot.
There's Katie, my eldest daughter,
She likes to dabble her hands in the water,
Lulu has found out a beautiful play,
Scattering the ashes every way ;
While baby Elsie, the sly little minx !
Can spill her milk and look wise as a sphinx.

One, two, three ?
 As you may see
 There's work enough in the world for me.
 So many little wants to supply,
 So many times to sing lullaby,
 So many little garments to sew—
 And the faces are always dirty, you know—
 So busy the day, so wearied the nights,
 No time to worry for woman's rights.

As you may guess,
 And I confess,
 There are anxious thoughts that at times oppress ;
 Hopes, plans, and fears for a future day :
 But all the mother can do is to pray,
 " Father, watch *them* with thy sleepless eyes,
 And out of *thy* wisdom make *me* wise."

There comes a sweet voice, as pleading as may be,
 Down goes the pen, and up comes—a baby.

FRANCES EASTWOOD.

INFLUENCE OF NATURE.

THERE are days which occur in this climate (that of Massachusetts) at almost any season of the year, wherein the world reaches its perfection ; when the air, the heavenly bodies, and the earth make a harmony, as if Nature would indulge her offspring ; when, in these bleak upper sides of the planet, nothing is to desire that we have heard of the happiest latitudes, and we bask in the shining hours of Florida and Cuba ; when everything that has life gives sign of satisfaction, and the cattle that lie on the ground seem to have great and tranquil thoughts. These halcyons may be looked for with a little more assurance in that pure October weather which we distinguish by the name of Indian Summer. The day, immeasurably long, sleeps over the broad hills, and warm, wide fields. To have lived through all its sunny hours seems longevity enough. The solitary places do not seem quite lonely. At the gates of the forest, the surprised man of the world is forced to leave his city estimates of great and small, wise and foolish. The knapsack of custom falls off his back with the first step he makes into these precincts. Here is sanctity which shames our religions, and reality which discredits our heroes.—RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

BENEFITS OF COUNTRY LIFE.

PROBABLY there never was a people needing more than ourselves all the refreshments, all the solace to be derived from country life in its better forms. The period at which we have arrived is rife with high excitement. The fever of commercial speculations, the agitation of political passions, the mental exertion required by the rapid progress of science, by the ever-recurring controversies of philosophy, and above all, that spirit of personal ambition and emulation so wearing upon the individual, and yet so very common in America—all unite to produce a combination of circumstances rendering it very desirable that we should turn, as frequently as possible, into paths of a more quiet and peaceful character. We need repose of mind. We need the shade of the trees and the play of healthful breezes to refresh our heated brows. We need the cup of water, pure from the spring, to cool our parched lips; we need the flowers, to soothe without flattery; the birds, to cheer without excitement; we need the sight of the green turf to teach us the humility of the grave; and we need the view of the open heavens to tell us where all human hopes should centre.—SUSAN FENIMORE COOPER.

JACK FROST.

A MISCHIEVOUS but merry wight
Came from the north one winter night,
And pranks performed so very queer,
You'll scarce believe them when you hear.

As o'er the fields he deftly sped,
The grass grew crisp beneath his tread;
The dewdrops as they met his eye
Shrunk into globules white and dry;
And to the air, where'er he went,
His breath a piercing keenness lent.

A waterfall stood in his way,
Busy with noise, and bright with spray;
"Ho! brawler," said he, "is it right
To work and roar at dead of night?
You must no longer clamor so
When all besides a-slumbering go."
He said, and the obedient linn*
Stood still, and hushed its clamorous din;
And what was water in a trice
Stiffened into a sheet of ice.

* A waterfall.

A dairy-farm he reached, and strange
It was to mark the instant change :
The milk, the butter, and the cream,
Grew solid, like the frozen stream ;
And from the milkmaid's cheek the rose
Fled with its blushes to her nose.

Next to the town he took his way,
Which sleeping in the moonlight lay ;
And though he came and went unseen,
His feats soon told where he had been.
The watchmen, lounging on their beat,
Took to "quick march," to give them heat ;
The streets, begrimed with mud before,
Grew hard and sheen as marble floor ;
No pump, or water-pipe, or well,
But felt the mastery of his spell :
The very houses he swept through—
The roofs he powdered with hoar-dew,
And every window pictured o'er
With forestry grotesque and hoar.
"Ho ! ho !" he said, "I'll let them see
None of them all can paint like me."

At last he sought, presumptuous elf !
To vent his mischief on myself ;
So feeling certain of his game,
Into my quiet room he came.
But, let me tell you, Jacky Frost
Reckoned for once without his host ;
I sat me there in warm attire,
With shutters closed, and blazing fire ;
And when he rushed at me in spite,
Intent to freeze me and frost-bite,
I thawed his beard, and with a kick
Despatched him up the chimney quick.

THE CHILDREN'S PRAYER.

A BEAUTIFUL POEM OF CHRISTMAS EVE.

'Twas the eve before Christmas; "Good-night" had been said,
And Annie and Willie had crept into bed;
There were tears on their pillows, and tears in their eyes,
And each little bosom was heaving with sighs,
For to-night their stern father's command had been given,
That they should retire precisely at seven,
Instead of at eight; for they troubled him more
With questions unheard of than ever before;
He had told them he thought this delusion a sin,
No such being as "Santa Claus" ever had been,
And he hoped after this he should never more hear
How he scrambled down chimneys with presents each year.
And this was the reason that two little heads
So restlessly tossed on their soft downy beds.
Eight, nine, and the clock on the steeple tolled ten—
Not a word had been spoken by either till then—
When Willie's sad face from the blanket did peep,
And whispered, "Dear Annie, is you fast asleep?"
"Why, no, brother Willie," a sweet voice replies,
"I've tried all in vain, but I can't shut my eyes,
For somehow it makes me so sorry because
Dear papa has said there is no "Santa Claus."
Now, we know there is, and it can't be denied,
For he came every year before mamma died;
But then I've been thinking that she used to pray,
And God would hear everything mamma would say.
And perhaps she asked Him to send Santa Claus here
With the sack full of presents he brought every year."
"Well, why tan't we pray dest as mamma did then,
And ask God to send him with presents aden?"
"I've been thinking so too." And without a word more
Four little bare feet bounded out on the floor,
And four little knees the soft carpet pressed,
And two tiny hands were clasped close to each breast.
"Now, Willie, you know we must firmly believe
That the presents we ask for we're sure to receive.
You must wait just as still till I say the 'Amen,'
And by that you will know that your turn has come then.
Dear Jesus, look down on my brother and me,
And grant us the favor we are seeking of Thee:
I want a wax doll, a tea-set and ring,
And an ebony work-box that shuts with a spring;

Bless papa, dear Jesus, and cause him to see
That Santa Claus loves us far better than he ;
Don't let him get fretful and angry again
At dear brother Willie and Annie. Amen.”
“Please Desus, 'et Santa Taus tum down to-night,
And bring some p'resents before it is light.
I want he should dive me a nice 'ittle sed,
With b'ight shinin' 'unners, and all painted 'ed,
A box full of tandy, a book and a toy.
Amen, and den, Desus, I'll be a dood boy.”
Their prayers being ended, they raised up their heads,
And with hearts light and cheerful again sought their beds.
They were soon lost in slumber both peaceful and deep,
And with fairies in dreamland were roaming in sleep.
Eight, nine, and the little French clock had struck ten,
Ere the father had thought of his children again ;
He seems now to hear Annie's half-suppressed sighs,
And to see the big tears stand in Willie's blue eyes.
“I was harsh with my darlings,” he mentally said ;
“And should not have sent them so early to bed.
But then I was troubled ; my feelings found vent,
For bank stock to-day has gone down ten per cent.
But of course they've forgot their troubles ere this,
And that I denied them the thrice-asked-for kiss ;
But, just to make sure, I'll steal up to the door,
For I never spoke harsh to my darlings before.”
So saying, he softly ascended the stairs,
And arrived at the door to hear both of their prayers.
His Annie's “bless papa” draws forth the big tears,
And Willie's grave promise falls sweet on his ears.
“Strange, strange I'd forgotten,” said he with a sigh,
“How I longed, when a child, to have Christmas draw nigh.
I'll atone for my harshness,” he inwardly said,
“By answering their prayers ere I sleep in my bed.”
Then he turned to the stairs, and went softly down,
Threw off velvet slippers and silk dressing-gown,
Donned hat, coat, and boots, and was out in the street,
A millionaire, facing the cold, driving sleet.
Nor stopped he until he had bought everything,
From a box full of candy to the tiny gold ring.
Indeed, he kept adding so much to his store,
That the various presents outnumbered a score.
Then homeward he turned with his holiday load,
And with Aunt Mary's help in the nursery 'twas stowed.
Miss Dolly was seated beneath a pine-tree,
By the side of a table spread out for her tea.

A workbox, well filled, in the centre was laid,
And on it a ring, for which Annie had prayed;
A soldier in uniform stood by a sled,
"With bright shining runners, and all painted red."
There were balls, dogs, and horses, books pleasing to see,
And birds of all colors were perched in the tree,
While Santa Claus, laughing, stood up in the top,
As if getting ready more presents to drop.
And as the fond father the picture surveyed,
He thought, for his trouble, he'd amply been paid,
And he said to himself, as he brushed off a tear,
"I'm happier to-night than I have been for a year;
I've enjoyed more true pleasure than ever before;
What care I if bank stock fall ten per cent. more?
Hereafter I shall make it a rule, I believe,
To have Santa Claus visit us each Christmas Eve."
So thinking, he gently extinguished the light,
And tripped down the stairs to retire for the night.
As soon as the beams of the bright morning sun
Put the darkness to flight, and the stars, one by one,
Four little blue eyes, out of sleep opened wide,
And at the same moment the presents espied.
Then out of their beds they sprang with a bound,
And the very gifts prayed for were all of them found.
They laughed and they cried in their innocent glee,
And shouted for "papa" to come quick and see
What old Santa Claus brought in the night
(Just the things that they wanted), and left before light.
"And now," added Annie, in a voice soft and low,
"You'll believe there's a Santa Claus, papa, I know,"
While dear little Willie climbed up on his knee,
Determined no secret between them should be,
And told, in soft whispers, how Annie had said
That their blessed mamma, so long ago dead,
Used to kneel down and pray by the side of her chair,
And that God, up in heaven, had answered her prayer.
"Den we dot up and prayed dest as well as we tould,
And Dod answered our prayers. Now, wasn't He dood?"
"I should say that He was, if He sent you all these,
And knew just what presents my children would please.
Well, well, let him think so, the dear little elf,
'Twould be cruel to tell him I did it myself."
Blind father! Who caused your stern heart to relent,
And the hasty words spoken so soon to repent?
'Twas the Being who bade you steal softly up stairs,
And made you His agent to answer their prayers.

A SONG OF THE HILLS.

My home is on the mountain,
My heart is light and free,
I drink from the gurgling fountain
As it murmurs towards the sea.

I view the gorgeous sunrise
As it lifts its fiery crest;
I love to gaze on the golden sky
As it sinks in the far-off west.

I worship the God of nature,
I bow before His shrine,
And I see Him in each creation,
From the broom to the grand old pine.

I envy not the rich and great
Their pride and pomp and power;
I do not crave the cares of state,
Contentment is my dower.

I love the dark-eyed beauty
That shares my humble lot;
She has neither fame nor riches,
But a true and honest heart.

WHAT THE BIRDS SAID.

IN the elm-shaded street,
Broad and dewy and cool,
Loitered two little feet,
On their way to school.

Two little wondering eyes
Watched the swift wings fly
Into the free blue skies
From the elm-tops high.

“Heigh-ho! the fields are fair,
And the woods, and the swirling brooks,
And the birds are free in the air,” he said;
“What do I care for books?”

And a dozen saucy birds
Sang loud his mood to share,
Loud, bold, and clear, the words,
“Tu-whit! what do *we* care?”

Then came another day,
Fair and sunny and sweet,
And over the shaded way
There came the little feet.

But oh! 'twas a rueful face,
With eyes and cheeks aflame,
Where tears had left their trace,
And penitence and shame.

“Your wings should all be clipped,
For the wicked things you say!
I have been soundly whipped,” he said,
“Because I ran away.”

And all the saucy birds
Sang loud his ire to dare—
Sang bold and clear the words,
“Tu-whit! what do *we* care?”

ANNA B. AVERILL.

OUR DARLING.

BOUNDING like a football,
Kicking at the door ;
Falling from the table-top,
Sprawling on the floor ;
Smashing cups and saucers,
Splitting Dolly's head ;
Putting little pussy-cat
Into baby's bed.
Building shops and houses,
Spoiling father's hat ;
Hiding mother's precious keys
Underneath the mat ;
Jumping on the fender,
Poking at the fire,
Dancing on his little legs—
Legs that never tire—
Making mother's heart leap
Fifty times a day ;
Aping everything we do,
Every word we say.
Shouting, laughing, tumbling,
Roaring with a will,
Anywhere and everywhere,
Never, never still.
Present—bringing sunshine ;
Absent—leaving night ;
That's our precious darling,
That's our heart's delight.

THE LITTLE MARTYR.

THE whistle, shrill,
Went up the hill,
And echoed through the valley still ;
“Danger ahead,”
We thought it said,
As on the heavy night-train sped !

The black wheels grate!
 "Too late! too late!"
 (How *could* they stop at such a rate!)
 The lightning's glow
 But served to show
 A mangled mass of flesh below!

What did they find?
 Tears always blind
 My eyes as I recall to mind
 The fearful sight,
 Which on that night
 We saw by "the red lantern's" light.

"The bridge is gone—
 Send some one on!
 ('Twere worse for *hundreds* than for *one*!')

The pleading mild
 Came from a child,
 Down in the rain that midnight wild.

The stifled sound
 Of groans around
 Told what a place these words had found,
 As strong men thought
 Of what was wrought
 By his young life which theirs had bought.

"I knew you'd slack,
 If, on the track,
 I'd drop this ugly, poor hunchback!
 But,—don't you know,—
 In heaven I'll grow
 As straight as any one below!"

"I saw it go,—
 (Some—one—stoop low!)"
 His voice grew very faint and slow,
 "No one would care,—
 God made me dare,
 To give what—all—could—so well—spare."

They raised his head,—
 He smiled,—was dead,—
 Without one look of pain or dread.
 Friends love to trace
 His resting-place
 Where bloom the lilies,—types of grace.

JOHNNY'S OPINION ON GRANDMOTHERS.

GRANDMOTHERS are very nice folks;
They beat all the aunts in creation,
They let a chap do as he likes,
And don't worry about education.

I'm sure I can't see it at all,
What a poor fellow ever could do
For apples, and pennies, and cakes,
Without a grandmother or two.

Grandmothers speak softly to "mas"
To let a boy have a good time;
Sometimes they will whisper, 'tis true,
'Tother way, when a boy wants to climb.

Grandmothers have muffins for tea,
And pies, a whole row, in the cellar;
And they are apt (if they know it in time)
To make chicken-pie for a "feller."

And if he is bad now and then,
And makes a great racketing noise,
They only look over their specs,
And say, "Ah, those boys will be boys!"

"Life is only so short at the best,
Let the children be happy to-day."
Then they look for a while at the sky,
And the hills that are far, far away.

Quite often, as twilight comes on,
Grandmothers sing hymns very low
To themselves as they rock by the fire,
About heaven, and when they shall go.

And then, a boy stopping to think
Will find a hot tear in his eye,
To know what will come at the last—
For grandmothers all have to die.

I wish they could stay here and pray,
For a boy needs their prayers every night;
Some boys more than others, I s'pose;
Such as I, need a wonderful sight.

Little Sower.

THE POETRY OF THE BIBLE IN ITS LITERARY CHARACTER.

WHILE poetry is the natural expression of intense emotion among all nations, it was one peculiarly delightful to the vivid imagination and the impressible nature of the Oriental. The shepherd who, while watching his flocks on the vast plains of Western Asia, had observed the mutations of the stars, had watched the transformations of the moon, or had seen the planets—some of them, seemingly, lesser moons—in their beauty wax and wane with the seasons; the traveller who, wearied with the glare of the blinding sun upon the burning sands, saw in the near distance the friendly “shadow of a great rock in a weary land,” or the verdure of the palm, which indicated the welcome presence of a fountain, or at least a cooling spring; the herdsman, proud of his cattle browsing on the hill-sides; the agriculturist, glorying in his vast fields of golden grain; and the warrior, returning in triumph from a successful foray on the domains of some neighboring sheikh, and welcomed with music and dance by the wives and daughters of his own tribe; all these, in that land of poetry and song, were moved to the deepest emotion by the sublime strains of the Hebrew poets.

And even to us, in our colder clime, and with our more phlegmatic temperaments, there is much that is exciting in the songs of Miriam and Deborah, in those grand triumphal psalms of David, in that sublime prayer of Habakkuk, and in the lofty conceptions of Isaiah. We are impressed with the vivid word-pictures of Job and the subtle philosophy of Solomon.

We should remember, too, that these sacred poems and dramas, which seem to us, through the imperfect medium of a translation, and at a time and in a country so remote from those in which they were first uttered, so grand and beautiful, were to the people who first listened to them, and in a language replete with melody, far more attractive than they can possibly be to us.

All true poetry is, in some sense, inspired; but this, whoever were the media through whom it was uttered, possesses a higher inspiration than any of the prophetic oracles of the Orient or the mysterious Sagas of the West. It dealt with loftier themes than the poetry of the Asiatics, for the God of whom it spoke, and whose glories it described, was infinitely mightier in power, wiser in action, and purer in all His attributes than the gods of the heathen. What wonder, then, that the

idolatrous dwellers on the banks of the Euphrates, entranced with the beauty of the Hebrew poetry, should have required of the captive Jews the melody of their national songs? or that the impious monarch who sought to defile, with unholy hands, the sacred vessels of the temple, should have shrunk back terror-stricken when the Levite choir sang one of those terrible invocations of the Divine wrath upon the enemies of the chosen people of God, found in the Psalms?—L. P. B., in Introduction to *Gilfillan's Poets and Poetry of the Bible*.

THE SCENERY OF THE FIRMAMENT.

THE scenery of the firmament! how much do we behold in it to admire and delight us. What forms, what colors, what variety, what movements and magnitudes! How excellent the arrangement, that instead of leaving the rising vapors to overspread and obscure the whole heaven, breaks up and collects them into clouds, thus exhibiting to our delighted eyes “the blue ethereal sky,” and producing the pleasing alternations of sunshine and shade! How charming the lights and shadows that are thus made to flit over the face of the landscape: now we see the sun suddenly bursting forth from his hiding-place, and flooding all nature with his genial heat and glories; and now we witness the deep, gigantic shadows of the flying clouds, careering, one after another, over field, and forest, and mountain side! Add to all this, the endless combinations and shades and forms the clouds are made to assume in order to relieve and adorn our skies. We have the delicate tints that first streak the morning sky, spreading and deepening, spreading and deepening, till the whole roof above is wreathed and lined with purple glories! Then we have the gauzy vapors that at the fervid noon float in the highest azure, as if the altar-smoke of pure devotion on its way to the throne of the Highest. Again, the thunder-clouds: these, at first, sombre in hue and limited in extent, soon begin to swell and put forth glistening fronts, and divide into chasms and precipices; massive and almost motionless they stand, yet climbing, every instant, higher and higher toward the zenith, till mountains of marble and peaks of glittering alabaster are presented to the view, casting far behind them their deep, dark shadows. Above all, we have the beauties of the sunset hour. Amid what indescribable glories often sinks the great monarch of the day to rest; declining in his westward course, what manner of clouds await him, calmly reposing on

the verge of the horizon; slowly he descends, and softly, amid their resplendent folds, he sinks—disappears; and lo! over his couch is drawn a veil of purple, and crimson, and scarlet, infinitely more gorgeous than the drapery of the proudest of Eastern Kings, while through a rift in the cloud that was nearest his point of disappearance, there comes a flood of glory which makes the beholder imagine for a moment that the pearly gates were left ajar, and that he is permitted to catch a glimpse of the streets of gold.—HERBERT W. MORRIS.

MELTING MOMENTS.

ONE winter evening, a country storekeeper in the Green Mountain State was about closing his doors for the night, when, while standing in the snow outside, putting up his window-shutters, he saw through the glass a lounging, worthless fellow within take half a pound of fresh butter from the shelf, and hastily conceal it in his hat.

The act was no sooner detected than the revenge was hit upon, and a very few moments found the Green Mountain storekeeper at once indulging his appetite for fun to the fullest extent, and paying off the thief with a facetious sort of torture, for which he might have gained a premium from the old Inquisition.

“Stay, Seth!” said the storekeeper, coming in, and closing the door after him, slapping his hands over his shoulders, and stamping the snow off his shoes.

Seth had his hand on the door, and his hat upon his head, and the roll of butter in his hat, anxious to make his exit as soon as possible.

“Seth, we’ll have a little warm Santa Cruz,” said the Green Mountain grocer, as he opened the stove door, and stuffed in as many sticks as the space would admit. Without it, you’d freeze going home such a night as this.”

Seth felt very uncertain; he had the butter, and was exceedingly anxious to be off, but the temptation of “something warm” sadly interfered with his resolution to go. This hesitation, however, was soon settled by the right owner of the butter taking Seth by the shoulders and planting him in a seat close to the stove, where he was in such a manner cornered in by barrels and boxes that while the country grocer sat before him, there was no possibility of his getting out; and right in this very place, sure enough, the storekeeper sat down.

Seth already felt the butter settling down closer to his hair, and declared he must go.

“Not till you have something warm, Seth. Come, I’ve got a story to tell you, Seth; sit down now.” And Seth was again pushed into his seat by his cunning tormentor.

“Oh, it’s too hot here!” said the petty thief, again attempting to rise.

“I say, Seth, set down; I reckon now, on such a night as this a little something warm wouldn’t hurt a fellow; come, sit down.”

“Sit down,—don’t be in such a plaguy hurry,” repeated the grocer, pushing him back into his chair.

“But I’ve got the cows to fodder, and some wood to split, and I must be a goin’,” continued the persecuted chap.

“But you mustn’t tear yourself away, Seth, in this manner. Sit down; let the cows take care of themselves, and keep yourself cool; you appear to be fidgety,” said the grocer, with a wicked leer.

The next thing was the production of two smoking glasses of hot rum toddy, the very sight of which in Seth’s present situation would have made the hair stand erect upon his head, had it not been oiled and kept down by the butter.

“Seth, I’ll give you a toast now, and you can *butter* it yourself,” said the grocer, yet with an air of such consummate simplicity, that poor Seth still believed himself unsuspected. “Seth, here’s—here’s a Christmas goose, well roasted and basted, eh? I tell you, Seth, it’s the greatest eating in creation. And, Seth, don’t you use hog’s fat or common cooking butter to baste a goose with. Come, take your butter—I mean, Seth, take your toddy.”

Poor Seth now began to *smoke* as well as to *melt*, and his mouth was as hermetically sealed up as though he had been born dumb. Streak after streak of the butter came pouring from under his hat, and his handkerchief was already soaked with the greasy overflow. Talking away as if nothing was the matter, the grocer kept stuffing the wood in the stove, while poor Seth sat bolt upright with his back against the counter, and his knees almost touching the red-hot furnace before him.

“Very cold night this,” said the grocer. “Why, Seth, you seem to perspire as if you were warm! Why don’t you take your hat off? Here, let me put your hat away.”

“No!” exclaimed poor Seth at last, with a spasmodic effort to get his tongue loose, and clapping both hands upon his hat,—“no!—I must go—let me out—I ain’t well—let me go!” A greasy cataract

was now pouring down the poor fellow's face and neck, and soaking into his clothes, and trickling down his body into his very boots, so that he was literally in a perfect bath of oil.

"Well, good-night, Seth," said the humorous Vermonter, "if you *will* go;" adding, as Seth got out into the road, "Neighbor, I reckon the fun I've had out of you is worth sixpence; so I sha'n't charge you for that half-pound of butter."—D. P. THOMPSON.

MISS MALONY ON THE CHINESE QUESTION.

OCH! don't be talkin'. *Is it howld on ye say?* An' didn't I howld on till the heart of me was clane broke entirely, an' me wastin' that thin you could clutch me wid yer two hands. To think o' me toilin' like a nager, for the six year I've been in Ameriky—bad luck to the day I iver left the owld counthry! to be bate by the likes o' them! (faix an' I'll sit down when I'm ready, so I will, Ann Ryan, an' ye'd better be listnin' than drawin' your remarks) an' is it meself, with five good characters from respectable places, would be herdin' wid the haythens? The saints forgive me but I'd be buried alive sooner'n put up wid it a day longer. Sure an' I was the granehorn not to be lavin' at onct when the missus kim into me kitchen wid her perlaver about the new waiter man which was brought out from Californy. "He'll be here the night," says she, "and Kitty, it's meself looks to you to be kind and patient wid him for he's a furriner," says she, a kind o' lookin' off. "Sure an' it's little I'll hinder nor interfare wid him nor any other, mum," says I, a kind o' stiff, for I minded me how these French waiters, wid their paper collars and brass rings on their fingers, isn't company for no gurril brought up dacint and honest. Och! sorra a bit I knew what was comin' till the missus walked into me kitchen smilin', and says kind o' sheared: "Here's Fing Wing, Kitty, an' you'll have too much sinse to mind his bein' a little strange." Wid that she shoots the doore, and I, mistrusting if I was tidied up sufficient for me fine buy wid his paper collar, looks up and—howly fathers! may I niver brathe another breath, but there stud a rale haythen Chineser a-grinnin' like he'd just come off a tay-box. If you'll belave me, the crayture was that yaller it 'ud sicken you to see him; an' sorra a stich was on him, but a black night-gown over his trousers, and the front of his head shaved claner nor a copper biler, and a black tail a-hangin' down from behind, wid his two feet stook into the haythenestest shoes you ever

set eyes on. Och! but I was up stairs before you could turn about, a-givin' the missus warnin', and only stopt wid her by her raisin' me wages two dollars and playdin' wid me how it was a Christian's duty to bear wid haythins, and taich them all in our power—the saints save us! Well, the ways and trials I had wid that Chineser, Ann Ryan, I couldn't be tellin'. Not a blissed thing cud I do, but he'd be lookin' on wid his eyes cocked up'ard like two poomp-handles, an' he widdout a speck or smitch o' whishkers on him, an' his finger-nails full a yard long. But it's dyin' you'd be to see the missus a-larnin' him, and he grinnin' an' waggin' his pig-tail (which was pieced out long wid some black stoof, the haythen chate!) and gettin' into her ways wonderful quick, I don't deny, imitatin' that sharp, you'd be shurprised, an' ketchin' an' copyin' things the best of us will do a-hurried wid work, yet don't wan't comin' to the knowledge of the family—bad luck to him!

Is it ate wid him? Arrah, an' would I be sittin' wid a haythen, an' be a-atin' wid drum sticks—yes, an' atin' dogs an' cats unknownst to me, I warrant you, which it is the custom of them Chinesers, till the thought made me that sick I could die. An' didn't the crayture proffer to help me a wake ago come Toosday, an' me a-foldin' down me clane clothes for ironin', an' fill his haythen mouth wid water, an' afore I could hinder, squirit it through his teeth stret over the best linen table-cloth, and fold it up tight, as innercent now as a baby, the dirrity baste! But the wurrest of all was the copyin' he'd be doin' till ye'd be dishtracted. It's yerself knows the tinder feet that's on me since iver I've bin in this counthry. Well, owin' to that I fell into a way o' slippin' me shoes off when I'd be settin' down to pale the praities or the likes o' that, and do ye mind! that haythen would do the same thing after me, whinivir the missus set him to parin' apples or tomatereses. The saints in heaven couldn't have made him belave he cud kape the shoes on him when he'd be paylin' anything.

Did I lave fur that? Faix an' I didn't. Didn't he get me into throuble wid my missus, the haythin? You're aware yersel' how the boondles comin' in from the grocery often contains more'n'll go into anything dacently. So, for that matter I'd now and then take out a sup o' sugar, or flour, or tay, an' wrap it in paper and put it in me bit of a box tucked under the ironin' blankit, the how it cuddent be bodderin' any one. Well, what shud it be, but this blessed Sathurday morn, the missus was a-spakin', pleasant and respec'ful wid me in me kitchen, when the grocer boy comes in an' stands fornenst her wid his boondles, an' she motions like to Fing Wing (which I never would call him by that name nor any other but just haythin), she motions to him,

she does, for to take the boondles an' empty out the sugar, an' what not, where they belongs. If you'll belave me, Ann Ryan, what did that blatherin' Chineser do but take out a sup o' sugar, an' a handful o' tay, an' a bit o' chase right afore the missus, wrap them into bits o' paper, an' I spacheless wid shurprise, an' he the next minute up wid the ironin' blankit and pullin' out me box wid a show o' bein' sly to put them in. Och! the Lord forgive me but I clutched it, an' the missus sayin', "O Kitty!" in a way that 'ud cruddle your blood. "He's a haythin nager," says I. "I've found you out," says *she*. "I'll arrist him," says I. "It's *you* ought to be arristed," says *she*. "You won't," says I. "I will," says *she*—and so it went till she give me such sass as I cuddent take from no lady—an' I give her warnin' an' left that instant, an' she a-pointin' to the doore.—*From "Etchings" in Scribner's Monthly.*

A HUSBAND'S EXPERIENCE IN COOKING.

I FOUND fault, some time ago, with Maria Ann's custard pie, and tried to tell her how my mother made custard pie. Maria made the pie after my receipt. It lasted longer than any other pie we ever had. Maria set it on the table every day for dinner, and you see I could not eat it, because I forgot to tell her to put in any eggs or shortening. It was economical, but in a fit of generosity I stole it from the pantry, and gave it to a poor little boy in the neighborhood. The boy's funeral was largely attended by his former playmates. I did not go myself.

Then there were the buckwheat cakes. I told Maria Ann any fool could beat her making those cakes, and she said I had better try it. So I did. I emptied the batter all out of the pitcher one evening, and set the cakes myself. I got the flour, and the salt, and water, and, warned by the past, put in a liberal quantity of eggs and shortening. I shortened with tallow from roast beef, because I could not find any lard. The batter did not look right, and I lit my pipe and pondered: "Yeast! yeast, to be sure!" I had forgotten the yeast. I went and woke up the baker, and got six cents' worth of yeast. I set the pitcher behind the sitting-room stove, and went to bed. In the morning I got up early, and prepared to enjoy my triumph; but I didn't. That yeast was strong enough to raise the dead, and the batter was running all over the carpet. I scraped it up and put it into another dish. Then got a fire in the kitchen, and put on the griddle. The first lot of cakes stuck to the griddle. The second dittoed, only more. Maria came down and

asked what was burning. She advised me to grease the griddle. I did it. One end of the griddle got too hot, and I dropped the thing on my tenderest corn, while trying to turn it around. Finally the cakes were ready for breakfast, and Maria got the other things ready. We sat down. My cakes did not have exactly the right flavor. I took one mouthful and it satisfied me; I lost my appetite at once. Maria would not let me put one on her plate. I think those cakes may be reckoned a dead loss. The cat would not eat them. The dog ran off and stayed away three days after one was offered him. The hens won't go within ten feet of them. I threw them into the back yard, and there has not been a pig on the premises since. I eat what is put before me now, and do not allude to my mother's system of cooking.—ANONYMOUS.

THE RESCUE OF CHICAGO.

I saw the city's terror,
I heard the city's cry,
As a flame leaped out of her bosom,
Up, up to the brazen sky.
And wilder rose the tumult,
And thicker the tidings came—
Chicago, queen of the cities,
Was a rolling sea of flame.

Yet higher rose the fury,
And louder the surges raved,—
Thousands were saved to suffer,
And hundreds never were saved ;—
'Till out of the awful burning,
A flash of lightning went,
And across to brave St. Louis
The prayer for succor was sent.

God bless thee, O true St. Louis!
So worthy thy royal name;
Back, back on the wing of the lightning
Thy answer of rescue came;
But alas! it could not enter
Through the horrible flame and heat,
For the fire had conquered the lightning
And sat in the Thunderer's seat.

God bless thee, again, St. Louis!
For resting never then;
Thou called'st to all the cities
By lightning and steam and pen:
"Ho, ho, ye hundred sisters,
Stand forth in your bravest might!
Our sister in flames is falling,
Her children are dying to-night!"

And through the mighty Republic
Thy summons went rolling on,
Till it rippled the seas in the tropics,
And ruffled the Oregon.
The distant Golden City
Called through her golden gates,
And quickly rung the answer
From the City of the Straits.

And the cities that sit in splendor
Along the Atlantic Sea,
Replying, called to the dwellers
Where the proud magnolias be.
From slumber the army started,
At the far resounding call:
"Food for a hundred thousand,"
They shouted, "and tents for all."

I heard through the next night's darkness
The trains go thundering by,
Till they stood where the fated city
Shone red in the brazen sky;
The rich gave their abundance,
The poor their willing hands;
There was wine from all the vineyards,—
There was corn from all the lands.

At daybreak over the prairies
Re-echoed the gladsome cry,
"Ho, look unto us, ye thousands,
Ye shall not hunger nor die!"
Their weeping was all the answer
That the famishing throng could give
To the million voices calling,
"Look unto us and live!"

Destruction wasted the city,
 But the burning curse that came
 Enkindled in all the people
 Sweet Charity's holy flame.
 Then still to our God be glory
 I bless Him through my tears,
 That I live in the grandest nation
 That hath stood in all the years.

HENRY M. LOOK.

SKIPPER IRESON'S RIDE.

OF all the rides since the birth of Time,
 Told in story or sung in rhyme—
 On Apuleius's Golden Ass,
 Or one-eyed Calender's horse of brass,
 Witch astride of a human back,
 Islam's prophet on Al-Borak—
 The strangest ride that ever was sped
 Was Ireson's, out from Marblehead!
 Old Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
 Tarred and feathered and carried in a cart
 By the women of Marblehead!

Body of turkey, head of owl,
 Wings a-droop like a rained-on fowl,
 Feathered and ruffled in every part,
 Skipper Ireson stood in the cart.
 Scores of women, old and young,
 Strong of muscle and glib of tongue,
 Pushed and pulled up the rocky lane,
 Shouting and singing the shrill refrain:
 "Here's Flud Oirson, fur his horrd horrt,
 Torr'd an' futherr'd an' corr'd in a corrt
 By the women o' Morble'ead!"

Wrinkled scolds with hands on hips,
 Girls in bloom of cheek and lips,
 Wild-eyed, free-limbed, such as chase
 Bacchus round some antique vase;
 Brief of skirt, with ankles bare,
 Loose of kerchief and loose of hair,
 With conch-shells blowing and fish-horns' twang,
 Over and over the Mænads sang:
 "Here's Flud Oirson, fur his horrd horrt,
 Torr'd an' futherr'd an' corr'd in a corrt
 By the women o' Morble'ead!"

Small pity for him ! He sailed away
 From a leaking ship, in Chaleur Bay—
 Sailed away from a sinking wreck,
 With his own townspeople on her deck !
 “Lay by ! lay by !” they called to him ;
 Back he answered, “Sink or swim !
 Brag of your catch of fish again !”
 And off he sailed through the fog and rain !
 Old Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
 Tarred and feathered and carried in a cart
 By the women of Marblehead !

Fathoms deep in dark Chaleur
 That wreck shall lie for evermore.
 Mother and sister, wife and maid,
 Looked from the rocks of Marblehead
 Over the moaning and rainy sea—
 Looked for the coming that might not be !
 What did the winds and sea-birds say
 Of the cruel captain who sailed away ?—
 Old Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
 Tarred and feathered and carried in a cart
 By the women of Marblehead !

Through the street, on either side,
 Up flew windows, doors swung wide ;
 Sharp-tongued spinsters, old wives gray,
 Treble lent the fish-horn's bray.
 Sea-worn grandsires, cripple-bound,
 Hulks of old sailors run aground,
 Shook head and fist and hat and cane,
 And cracked with curses the hoarse refrain :
 “Here's Flud Oirson, fur his horrd horrt,
 Torr'd an' futherr'd an' corr'd in a corrt
 By the women o' Morble'ead !”

Sweetly along the Salem road
 Bloom of orchard and lilac showed.
 Little the wicked skipper knew
 Of the fields so green and the sky so blue.
 Riding there in his sorry trim,
 Like an Indian idol, glum and grim,
 Scarcely he seemed the sound to hear
 Of voices shouting far and near :
 “Here's Flud Oirson, fur his horrd horrt,
 Torr'd an' futherr'd an' corr'd in a corrt
 By the women o' Morble'ead !”

"Hear me, neighbors!" at last he cried—
 "What to me is this noisy ride?
 What is the shame that clothes the skin
 To the nameless horror that lives within?
 Waking or sleeping, I see a wreck,
 And hear a cry from a reeling deck!
 Hate me and curse me—I only dread
 The hand of God and the face of the dead!"
 Said old Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
 Tarred and feathered and carried in a cart
 By the women of Marblehead!

Then the wife of the skipper lost at sea
 Said, "God has touched him—why should we?"
 Said an old wife, mourning her only son,
 "Cut the rogue's tether and let him run!"
 So with soft relentings and rude excuse,
 Half scorn, half pity, they cut him loose,
 And gave him a cloak to hide him in,
 And left him alone with his shame and sin.
 Poor Floyd Ireson, for his hard heart,
 Tarred and feathered and carried in a cart
 By the women of Marblehead!

J. G. WHITTIER.

CRADLE SONG.

WHAT is the little one thinking about?
 Very wonderful things, no doubt.
 Unwritten history!
 Unfathomed mystery!
 Yet he laughs and cries, and eats and drinks,
 And chuckles and crows, and nods and winks,
 As if his head were as full of kinks
 And curious riddles as any sphinx!
 Warped by colic and wet by tears,
 Punctured by pins and tortured by fears,
 Our little nephew will lose two years;
 And he'll never know
 Where the summers go;—
 He need not laugh, for he'll find it so!

Who can tell what a baby thinks?
Who can follow the gossamer links
By which the mannikin feels his way
Out from the shore of the great unknown,
Blind, and wailing, and alone,
Into the light of day?—
Out from the shore of the unknown sea,
Tossing in pitiful agony,—
Of the unknown sea that reels and rolls
Specked with the barks of little souls—
Barks that were launched on the other side,
And slipped from Heaven on an ebbing tide!
What does he think of his mother's eyes?
What does he think of his mother's hair?
What of the cradle-roof that flies
Forward and backward through the air?
What does he think of his mother's breast—
Bare and beautiful, smooth and white,
Seeking it ever with fresh delight—
Cup of his life and couch of his rest?
What does he think when her quick embrace
Presses his hand and buries his face
Deep where the heart-throbs sink and swell
With a tenderness she can never tell,
Though she murmur the words
Of all the birds—
Words she has learned to murmur well?
Now he thinks he'll go to sleep!
I can see the shadow creep
Over his eyes, in soft eclipse,
Over his brow, and over his lips,
Out to his little finger-tips,
Softly sinking, down he goes!
Down he goes! Down he goes!
See! He is hushed in sweet repose!

J. G. HOLLAND, in *Bittersweet*.

JOHN JANKIN'S SERMON. •

THE minister said last night, says he,
 "Don't be afraid of givin' ;
 If your life ain't nothin' to other folks,
 Why what's the use of livin' ?"
 And that's what I say to my wife, says I,
 "There's Brown, that mis'erable sinner,
 He'd sooner a beggar would starve, than give
 A cent towards buyin' a dinner."

I tell you our minister's prime, he is,
 But I couldn't quite determine,
 When I heard him givin' it right and left,
 Just who was hit by the sermon.
 Of course there couldn't be no mistake,
 When he talked of long-winded prayin',
 For Peters and Johnson they sot and scowled
 At every word he was sayin'.

And the minister he went on to say,
 "There's various kinds of cheatin',
 And religion's as good for every day
 As it is to bring to meetin'.
 I don't think much of a man that gives
 The loud Amens at my preachin',
 And spends his time the followin' week
 In cheatin' and overreachin'."

I guess that dose was bitter
 For a man like Jones to swaller ;
 But I noticed he didn't open his mouth,
 Not once, after that, to holler.
 Hurrah, says I, for the minister—
 Of course I said it quiet—
 Give us some more of this open talk ;
 It's very refreshin' diet.

The minister hit 'em every time ;
 And when he spoke of fashion,
 And a-riggin' out in bows and things,
 As woman's rulin' passion,
 And a-comin' to church to see the styles,
 I couldn't help a-winkin'
 And a-nudgin' my wife, and says I, "That's you,"
 And I guess it sot her thinkin'.

Says I to myself, that sermon's pat ;
But man is a queer creation ;
And I'm much afraid that most o' the folks
Wouldn't take the application.
Now if he had said a word about
My personal mode o' sinnin',
I'd have gone to work to right myself,
And not set there a-grinnin'.

Just then the minister says, says he,
"And now I've come to the fellers
Who've lost this shower by usin' their friends
As a sort o' moral umbrellers.
Go home," says he, "and find your faults,
Instead of huntin' your brothers' ;
Go home," he says, "and wear the coats
You've tried to fit the others."

My wife she nudged, and Brown he winked,
And there was lots o' smilin',
And lots o' looking at our pew ;
It sot my blood a-bilin',
Says I to myself, our minister
Is gettin' a little bitter ;
I'll tell him when meetin's out, that I
Ain't at all that kind of a critter.

—*Harper's Bazar.*

Other Intellectual Exercises for the Grange.

WE are glad to know that the practice of discussion or debate on topics of interest to farmers and others, is becoming a frequent exercise in the older Granges. We hope it may become general. These debates may be conducted in a variety of ways. Perhaps one of the best is to have the Lecturer and Chaplain select a question or topic for discussion for the next meeting, and then each appoint a Patron to open the debate, on one side and the other. Then opening speeches ought to be limited to fifteen or twenty minutes each, and then should follow volunteer discussion, by any member of the Grange, in five or eight minute speeches, for an hour, when the appointed speakers should sum up on their respective sides, in speeches of eight or, at the utmost, ten minutes each, and then a decision should be rendered, either by the Master or Lecturer, or by a vote of the Grange. The decision by the Master or Lecturer is preferable, as it is more likely to be impartial, as, where all vote, many will vote according to their own previous views, without reference to the weight of argument on one side or the other. In order that the ladies may have an opportunity to participate in these discussions, they should be allowed to present their arguments in writing. We give below a few questions for discussion, and one or two outlines of the mode of treating them.

1. Which employment is to be preferred—that of the farmer or of the mechanic?

2. Which pursuit brings most happiness—agriculture or commerce?

3. Which is preferable—farming or one of the learned professions?

4. Has the manufacturer, all things considered, any advantage in point of comfort and happiness over the farmer?

5. Farmer or merchant, which is the better and happier life?

6. Should public-school education be compulsory?

7. The advantages and disadvantages of co-operation.
8. Should boys and girls be educated together in the Academies and Colleges?
9. Will it pay to grow wheat when the average yield does not exceed fifteen bushels to the acre?
10. Which are most profitable, taking all things into account—crops which are fed out on the farm, or those which are exported in bulk?
11. Are there elements of permanency in the Order of Patrons of Husbandry?
12. Is the punishment of death for murder justifiable?
13. Does the mitigation of the severity of punishments tend to lessen crime?
14. Is it right to license men to sell intoxicating drinks as a beverage?
15. Is it wise and right for a Legislature to regulate the freight tariff on railroads in a State or passing through it?
16. Do the advantages of a speedy return to specie payment outweigh its disadvantages?
17. Is the production of exhausting crops, such as tobacco, hops, hemp, etc., for exportation from the place where they are grown, judicious, or, in the end, profitable farming?
18. Which is best for the farmer, a foreign market or a home one, for his produce?
19. Ought the higher education, that is of Colleges, Universities, Professional and Scientific Schools, to be free of charge for tuition or instruction?
20. Is life on a farm as conducive to happiness and to physical, moral, and intellectual development, as life in a city? The means of living are to be supposed to be the same in each condition, as otherwise there can be no just comparison.

There are a great variety of other questions more local in their character, pertaining to farm life, in different sections of the country, to crops, rearing of animals, fruit-growing, manures, etc., etc., which will suggest themselves to the members of the Granges, as of special interest to them, while they are not such as would answer for a general list.

We give a brief analysis of the arguments on each side for two

of these questions, viz.: Question 1. Which employment is to be preferred—that of the farmer or of the mechanic?

On the side of the farmer may be urged the antiquity and honor of his employment, dating from the garden of Eden; its necessity to man's existence and comfort, as providing the means of sustaining life; its healthfulness; the opportunity it affords for acquiring practical knowledge, and even the highest intellectual culture; its beneficence in making desert and neglected lands yield both sustenance and pleasure to man; the sense of dependence upon and gratitude to the Creator, which it develops in man, in the recurrence of seed-time and harvest, sunshine and rain, in beautiful harvests and abundance of the good things of this life.

On the side of the mechanic, it may be urged, that though his art is not quite as old as that of the farmer, it has a high antiquity, dating more than a thousand years before the Flood; that the labors of one class of mechanics have in all ages been so highly prized that they have given a family name to countless thousands of men, the Smiths, Schmidts, Schmitts, Vulcans, Hephæstions, Mulcibers, Tubal Cains, etc., of all nations; that the name of Haddad (Smith) was the crown or reigning name of the Kings of Syria for 2,000 years; that the Greeks, Latins, and Egyptians had in their mythology powerful deities who were Smiths, and who furnished to Jove his thunderbolts; to the other gods, their armor; that among savage tribes, to this day, the mechanic is the greatest of men; that without the mechanic no other class of men could prosecute their labors: the farmer would be without his tools, his farm machinery, his shelter for himself and the creatures dependent upon him, from the storm, or the intense heat of the sun; that but for his aid no table could be spread, no food prepared, no stores laid up for winter or for export; that every part of the husbandman's labor would be performed in the most primitive and savage fashion; that our clothing, but for his skill, would be but the rough skins of animals, the bark of trees, or the rude, coarse fabrics produced by the simplest domestic labor. Is it nothing that he thus contributes to human comfort and enjoyment? That he transforms the mineral, animal, and vegetable products of our earth into so many forms of use and beauty? that for him the forest and the field yield their most beautiful woods, their finest textiles, and their most brilliant dyes, the earth its

richest and purest ores and minerals, the animal creation their treasures of wool and hair, of bone and enamelled tusks, their coatings of skin and hide, their tendons and fibres, and by manifold combinations and variations he lays all nature under tribute? To the mechanic the opportunities for intellectual culture may not be as abundant as to the farmer, but if he is a thoughtful student of nature, the occasions of study and improvement will be prized and treasured. The man to whom is due the first suggestion of our present beneficent signal service, that record which we now so constantly consult to know what is to be the weather of the coming day, was, through all the years of his life to middle age, a humble mechanic, a saddler, William C. Redfield by name, and yet he acquired, on his saddler's bench, such knowledge of the sciences of nature, that he was the valued correspondent of the most eminent scholars of Europe and America, and was elected President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

The 12th question, "Is the punishment of death for murder justifiable?" is one of great scope, and has been argued ably hundreds of times. For the affirmative, it may be said, that the taking of the life of the murderer as a penalty for murder, has the sanction of the highest antiquity; of the positive command to Noah, "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed;" of the practice of all the civilized nations of the world in the past; it seems to be necessary to the protection of society, and the preservation of order; that the penalty corresponds thoroughly to the offence; that it is the most effectual means of deterring others from the same crime, and that most of the objections to it are rather the results of the imperfect and lax administration of the law which renders conviction uncertain and often improbable, than to any fault in the penalty itself; and finally the inadequacy of any other punishment to meet the enormity of the offence.

On the negative may be urged the sacredness of human life; the admitted objects of punishment to reform the offender as well as to protect society; the liability to error in regard to the degree of guilt of the accused person; the impossibility of correcting such error after the death penalty has been inflicted; the difficulty of convicting even the most hardened criminal where a conviction would result in hanging; the demoralizing effect of executions on

those who witness them ; the well-known fact that the more frequent the executions the more abundant the crimes of which death is the penalty ; the possibility of the murderer making some amends to society if his life is spared, and the protection which imprisonment for life affords to society.

The libraries attached to most of the Granges will afford the means of expanding most of these ideas, and will enable the really earnest debater to make his points strong, and thus to give interest and enthusiasm to the discussion.

Other exercises may vary and diversify the meetings of the Grange. At times, tableaux, acted charades, impersonations, or riddles, puzzles, conundrums, matched verses, concealed words, etc., etc., etc., will add greatly to the interest of these meetings of the Grange ; but directions in regard to these are more appropriate in the columns of a Magazine than in a book like this, and we advise those of our readers who desire to try these, to turn to the pages of the GRANGE MONTHLY, where they will find, each month, something that will interest them.

For those inclined to more grave recreations, there remains the resource of essays and papers on an infinite variety of subjects of interest in rural and farm life, and in connection with the new and enlarged sphere of usefulness opened to them in the Grange. The ladies may, with advantage, occupy this field with papers on horticultural and housekeeping topics, or if they choose, on some of those questions of political economy which they often comprehend more quickly than men.



HARVESTER AND GLEANER.

Co-operation.

THE Order of Patrons of Husbandry has its foundation in the principle of co-operation. It was organized to bring together and harmonize those individual and isolated interests which had hitherto made the agricultural portion of our population the prey of greedy speculators, of reckless adventurers, and of dishonest agents and tradesmen. Yet, in its early history, this great advantage of its associated action was but dimly perceived, and while one form of co-operation—that of procuring through the officers of the National or State Granges reduced prices for farm machinery, farming implements, sewing machines, musical instruments, and some other goods, and the obtaining of better prices for farm produce by combined action, and in a few instances by the erection of elevators and packing-houses, or the purchase or chartering of freight cars, the apparently more obvious plan of maintaining co-operative stores and warehouses, co-operative manufactories, savings banks, credit societies, libraries and reading-rooms—was very generally ignored, or at least not encouraged, even by the leading spirits of the Order, up to the spring or summer of 1873. Perhaps this was, after all, wise, for the later growth of the Order has been so rapid, and its development in all directions so extraordinary, that there had been very little opportunity to mature plans for co-operative establishments, under the peculiar circumstances of the Granges; and the successful management of co-operative stores, warehouses, and manufactories was a problem which experience, in this country, had not fairly solved. There was, indeed, the magnificent success of the “Rochdale Society of Equitable Pioneers,” and its kindred co-operative associations in Great Britain, and of the Hamburg, Zurich, Munich, Berlin, and St. Petersburg co-operative societies, on the continent of Europe, to encourage effort in this direction; but the circumstances were somewhat different, and plans which worked well the other side of the Atlantic, failed from some cause to do so here. It was, moreover, the prevalent opinion, and perhaps the true one, that while in this country co-operative manufacturing and printing had

sometimes proved successful, co-operative stores had, as a rule, proved a failure; and the fear that if they were established in connection with the Granges, while these were in their infancy, they might not only prove a failure, but bring discredit upon the Order, induced great hesitation in regard to their recommendation. But the pressure from all quarters for these stores led the officers of the National Grange to review the subject more critically, and at the meeting of the National Grange at St. Louis, in February, 1874, Worthy Master Adams said, in his opening address: "The subject of co-operative stores is one in which subordinate Granges have manifested much interest, but the want of definite information as to the most approved and successful plan of conducting them has prevented their general establishment. I am of the opinion that the National Grange should prepare a careful and elaborate plan for such stores, using therefor the abundant material which the experience of the Rochdale and other societies afford. This would be hailed with delight by thousands of Patrons now groping in the dark."

The Committee on Transportation and Co-operation at the same session of the National Grange reported, that the Executive Committee of the National Grange be "instructed to devise some safe plan for co-operative stores, for the information of members of the Order, and transmit the same to the Executive Committee of the several State Granges." It is understood that Mr. Saunders, chairman of the Executive Committee, has been giving this matter profound attention, and that for this purpose he has summoned to his assistance the best works on the subject and the services of the men most familiar with it, both in Europe and the United States. We shall expect from him a plan which will be eminently practical in its character, and adapted to the needs of the Granges, for no man is more thoroughly at home on whatever appertains to the interests of the Patrons, than he.

But meanwhile the Granges are so much in earnest in this matter of co-operative stores that they are starting them, without waiting for the plan to be completed; and lest, from imperfect knowledge, they should fall into the same errors which have ruined so many co-operative societies, we presume both they and the Executive Committee will pardon us for making a few suggestions on the subject which may prove of a little service, till Mr. Saunders'

plan is completed and communicated to the State Executive Committees.

1. In the first place, then, it seems to be evident that the very general failure of co-operative stores in this country has arisen from one or other of these causes : Defective or dishonest management ; the giving of credit ; insufficient capital ; a too close distribution of the profits ; unskilful buying ; larger and more salaries and greater expenses than the business would warrant ; and too great ambition for extending the business. Occasionally the location has been unfortunate, sometimes from its obscurity, sometimes from its distance from the customers, but oftener from its being surrounded by shops or stores of an entirely different character. Of all these causes the lack of a skilful, competent, and thoroughly honest manager is the most common.

In the ordinary co-operative store societies there are no bonds of union except that of buying cheap. Experience proves that this is insufficient ; that the members of the society or organization must belong, for the most part, to the same class ; must have many interests in common, and must be drawn to each other by such ties that they will feel a deep interest in each other, and be disposed to look out for each other's welfare.

They must not start till they have a sufficient capital in hand to purchase a fair stock, and to obtain from the parties from whom they purchase as good terms as other dealers in the same place ; and, indeed, buying only for cash, they should be able to realize better terms than any buyers on credit, even though the amount of a single purchase was considerably less than that of the buyer on credit.

The stock on hand should not be excessive for the demand, since most articles deteriorate by long keeping, and even if they do not, the interest on the money expended for them increases their cost ; but an error in the other direction, that of keeping an insufficient supply, is also a frequent cause of dissatisfaction. The articles purchased should be of good quality, usually of the best, though in some instances it will be desirable to have several grades, as in teas, coffees, sugars, molasses, and, if dry-goods are dealt in, cottons, linen goods, calicoes, delaines, etc., etc. The strictest honesty and frankness in regard to the goods should be enforced ; in a co-operative store it does not answer (does it in any

shop or store?) to say that an article will wash when it will not; that it is of the first quality, when it is of the second or third; that it is perfect, when the salesman knows it to be imperfect. There must be no falling short in weight or measure—practices which custom has made common in other stores, should never be allowed in a co-operative store; if a customer wants a pound of butter, sugar, coffee, tea, or anything of the sort, he must have full weight, not the pound, less a sheet of straw-paper or a light box, bag or tin pan, cup, or any other vessel. Absolute honesty in weight and measure is indispensable.

There must be no credit given—not of an hour—the rule of cash on delivery of the goods being an absolute necessity in all co-operative stores; and to this rule there must be no exceptions, neither of the officers of the society, nor of the manager or superintendent. The cash must be the voucher for every transaction on the books, and the executive committee, trustees, president, auditor, or other supervising officer, must be able, at any time, by the comparison of the books and cash on hand with the invoices and goods and stock unsold, to account for all the stock, and to ascertain the profits.

The manager or superintendent should be thoroughly honest, intelligent, and trustworthy; he should not be, for obvious reasons, a relative or confidential friend of any of the officers of the society, who will have to overlook his affairs; he should have a sufficient knowledge of book-keeping, should be quick at figures, a ready and rapid penman, and accustomed to the forms of business; it should not be an objection to him that he has been a salesman in an ordinary store, though it is not a special recommendation, since with the knowledge he may have gained there, would often come some habits and practices, not seriously wrong in themselves, but objectionable in the manager of a co-operative store; and the necessary knowledge is speedily gained by practice. He should be of good address, courteous and patient, and possessed of tact in ascertaining the wants of his customers, and supplying them quickly and correctly. He should have no interest in the dividends from the store. On some accounts it is better that he should be a married man, especially if his wife can aid him in the business of the store, but as a general rule the dwelling of the manager should not be in the same building.

As, in most cases, the manager will not be the buyer of the goods, if the traffic is not too heavy, the selling may be conducted to advantage by women. They have usually more tact in waiting upon customers, more taste in the arrangement of their goods, are quicker in filling the orders, and often are disposed to perform the duties of the position at a lower salary than men. We believe that the same labor should receive the same compensation, if equally well performed, whether done by one sex or the other, but the laws of supply and demand at present regulate this question of salaries. The salary should in every case be sufficiently liberal to prevent temptation to dishonest practices.

Two or three questions in regard to co-operative stores deserve notice here. The first is whether the sale of goods should be confined to members of the society? Generally, the practice is to sell to all persons without distinction, and as the patronage, so long as the business is retail, can hardly be too large, this is perhaps best. The goods of the co-operative store are usually sold at fixed rates of profit, averaging considerably less than those of adjacent stores. When, however, these attempt to compete, no effort should be made to rival them on prices. The members pay a fixed rate of profit (usually 8 or 10 per cent.) on their goods, and however frantic may be the efforts of the rival stores to undersell them, they must in the end relinquish the competition, as that is the lowest rate of profit which can be made remunerative. But while those not connected with the society are welcome to purchase of the co-operative stores at their low rates, it does not follow that they should share the dividends of profit equally with the members. To allow this would be unjust for these reasons:—

1. It would discourage any increase in the membership of the society; for if they are allowed all its privileges without contributing anything to its capital, where is the use of membership?
2. It is unjust that the members should furnish the capital, and yet give to those who are not members equal dividends.
3. It deprives those who have furnished the capital of a legitimate share of the profits on it.
4. If the society wishes to enlarge its capital, its opportunity of doing so is diminished by these dividends to outsiders.

There should, then, be a distinction made between members and outsiders in the dividends. All have the same privileges of buying at the reduced rates offered by the co-opera-

tive store—but to the member who purchases, there is given some token indicating the amount which he purchases, and the aggregate of these tokens gives the entire amount of his purchases for the quarter. In some cases similar tokens are given to all purchasers, and the outsiders give or sell theirs to members to increase their dividends.

What is the best principle on which to make these dividends? Some societies make them on the amount of stock held by each member, others according to the amount of purchases for the quarter; and others still allow members to purchase or receive the tickets or tokens (if such are issued) of outsiders, and thus increase their dividends. Where the enterprise is a stock one, and each member holds one or more shares (the amount being limited usually to two or four), the division according to the shares held would seem to be the fairest; where, on the other hand, a society or association has raised its capital by loan or from funds in its treasury, the division of a *portion* of the profits, according to the purchases of each member, is fair enough; but there should not be liberty given to use the tickets of outsiders to swell this amount for individual members, as this would be an injustice to those of the members who were not successful in obtaining these. The profit on goods sold to outsiders should either go to increase the capital of the society, or to increase the dividends of the members according to the shares they hold.

Should all the profits be divided among the members, or a part reserved for increase of capital, or for a reserve or guaranty fund? In co-operative societies as usually organized, there is an absolute necessity for the reservation of a part of the profits to increase the capital, inasmuch as they generally start with an insufficient capital, and the increase comes more easily from the profits than from additional subscriptions. Usually, if successful, it is deemed desirable to start other stores in other quarters of the town to accommodate a larger number of members and purchasers, and sometimes it is better to supply the capital for this from the profits of the original store than from new assessments. The great success of the Rochdale Pioneers has arisen from their reserving a considerable portion of their profits for the prosecution of enlarged enterprises. The German co-operatives have been less tolerant of these reserves, and by dividing up nearly all their profits have pre-

vented so great an extension of their benefits as has followed the English plan.

A plan adopted with good results in England, and in some of the co-operative societies in this country, is the following : Where there is a brisk trade and a moderate capital, so that there is a fair variety in the stock, the capital earns, when well managed, a net profit of about ten per cent. per quarter after deducting all expenses. (It is better to have a quarterly accounting, as, if there is anything wrong, it is sooner discovered.) Of this ten per cent., one-half is reserved for increase of capital, or the starting of other stores in the same place ; one-fourth for a reserve or guaranty fund, which includes insurance, charities, benefits to poor members, etc. ; and one-fourth is divided among the members in cash, according to their shares. This gives them ten per cent. cash dividend annually on their shares, beside increasing their value twenty per cent. per annum by increasing the capital, and gives them a guaranty and charitable fund of ten per cent. more. An instance of the increase of capital by allowing it to accumulate in the business is given in the records of the Rochdale society, in which a laborer, who paid into the society on the 1st of November, 1850, one shilling sterling (24 cents), doubtless at considerable sacrifice, suffered it to remain with its profits in the society treasury, and from dividends, and the interest on them compounded at each quarterly settlement, he had in June, 1861 (without paying in another penny, and after withdrawing £6 = about \$30), a vested capital of £98, 13s. 4d. = to about \$490. This incident leads us to say that when a portion of the profits is reserved for increase of capital, the business should pay a moderate interest (hardly more than six per cent. on this capital). It is very often the case in England that the co-operative store, when successful, draws around it other co-operative institutions. Manufacturing of articles not requiring a large capital for starting, has often been begun in this way, as for instance of shoes, and other leather goods, furnishing goods, furniture, hats, caps, ready-made clothing, etc. ; and where the capital was not needed for the store, it has been put into some of these enterprises. Every interest of this sort should, however, be carefully managed and strictly guarded, lest the capital accumulated be squandered.

A more desirable enterprise, and one which in the end pays

better, is that of a co-operative library and reading-room. This renders the vicinity attractive, increases the custom of the store, diminishes the tendency to intemperance, and by making the members more intelligent and studious, their leisure moments will be employed to the best advantage. It is not desirable that these reading-rooms and libraries should be absolutely free, but the fee for membership should be very small, and paid in weekly or monthly instalments.

A few words now on what should and what should not be kept in co-operative stores. Generally it will be found profitable to keep only what are known as staple goods, such as are least injured by keeping, and such as will be of most advantage to the customer. We need hardly say, that on no pretext should any intoxicating liquors, either distilled or fermented, be kept. If these are needed for mechanical, medicinal, chemical, or sacramental purposes (and their sale for all these may be a legitimate business), let them be kept by properly authorized agents, duly licensed for this purpose. Have nothing to do with them in any way. The sale of tobacco rests upon a different basis, and though the "weed" does much more harm than good, yet its sale must, we suppose, be tolerated. Cigars should be avoided, however, from their great variety, and the large amount of capital they require. Gunpowder and other explosive substances ought not to be kept in a co-operative store; the risk is too great to be taken.

Green vegetables should not be dealt in. The organization of a co-operative store is not adapted, without extra labor and complication, for a commission business, and green vegetables cannot be otherwise dealt in without a percentage of loss which materially impairs the profits. This objection does not lie, at least to the same degree, against other articles of produce less perishable. While there is a risk of a small percentage of loss on them, there is also a fair profit on them if trade is brisk.

Ready-made clothing and furnishing goods take up considerable room, and if kept should be sold at a somewhat larger profit than groceries, to cover extra expense of rent and chances of loss from unsalable and unfitting patterns. Crockery, glass-ware, pottery, and china-ware may be kept; but occupying much room, will require a little higher rate of profit to make them pay. As the profit charged on these goods by ordinary dealers is very large,

the prices at which they can be sold will create a brisk demand for them. Hardware, house-furnishing goods, tin-ware, cast-iron hollow-ware, plated goods, wooden and willow ware, are all goods occupying a large amount of space but paying pretty liberal profits, and if kept should be marked at somewhat higher prices proportionately than staple goods. For staple commodities, as a general rule, 10 per cent. is a sufficient profit (beyond freights, cartage, boxes, etc.), and this rate is generally from 10 to 15 per cent. below that charged by ordinary dealers; but most of the articles enumerated above pay to the dealers a profit of from $33\frac{1}{3}$ to 75 per cent., and if sold in a co-operative store should be marked at an advance on cost of 15 to 20 per cent. to cover risk of loss and additional rent, etc.

The question of dealing in fuel, either wood or coal, must be settled, for the most part, by the location of the store; where storage-room is low and abundant, and capital plenty, it may be well to do so; but, as a general rule, an arrangement equally advantageous can be made by the purchase by a co-operative society of a cargo, barge load, or section of coal cars, of coal of a desirable kind, to be divided up according to their several requirements. Wood may be purchased in the same way. By this plan there is no waste, no unprofitable investment of capital, no storage expenses, and all are supplied at net wholesale prices.

This leads to the discussion of another point in co-operation of considerable importance. In many places there are several classes of goods which the co-operative stores do not keep, while other stores in the same place do; it may also happen that the co-operative store is too distant from some of the families of the co-operative society to make it convenient or profitable for them to trade with it. In these cases it is the practice of those societies, where they can effect it, to make *contracts* with the other merchants, to supply their members with goods for cash, and return to the co-operative society a percentage (usually ranging from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 15 per cent.) of what they receive from these society purchasers; and this percentage is distributed to these members in the same way as the profits from the co-operative store are to those who purchase there, or in some instances only ten per cent. of this percentage is retained by the society to defray the cost of the contract business, and the rest paid over to the members, to whom it be-

longs, quarterly. The members who purchase on these contracts have tickets furnished them by the society, and receive at the time of purchasing a certificate or memorandum in some form of the amount purchased, as a check and voucher for their profits. These arrangements are most frequently made with the dealers in dry-goods, books and stationery, drugs, boots and shoes, ready-made clothing and furnishing goods, hardware, meats, bread and cake, etc., etc.

One of the most successful of these co-operative society stores in this country, for the time it has been established, is that at Sedalia, Missouri. When its constitution and hand-book (from which we give extracts below) were published, Jan. 1, 1874, it had been in existence but fifteen months. It had adopted, in addition to its store, the *contract system* for goods not kept in the society store. Its constitution and plan are mainly copied from the English system.

It was organized in October, 1872, and incorporated in June, 1873. It began with but few members, and a small capital, and the store was started in a small room on a by-street. It has been quite successful, as shown by the statement, and may be deemed permanently established. It has furnished goods, uniformly of better quality, and at much less prices, than they had been previously sold there. It has *lessened the cost of living* in the town, and to some extent in the county. At the same time it has paid a large interest to stockholders.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 1. This Society shall be known as the Sedalia Co-operative Store Society ; and its objects shall be to furnish its members with needed articles of merchandise, at the least cost, and to save capital for them from the profits of the sales.

ART. 2. The *Capital Stock* of the Society shall be \$2,500, divided into one hundred shares, of the par value of \$25 each ; and any person can become a member by paying the amount of a share, or by paying \$5, and paying \$5 each quarter thereafter, until the amount of a share has been paid ; and if any member who has not paid a share, fails to pay \$5 by the 15th day of the first month of each quarter, a penalty of 25 cents a month shall be charged to such member, until all arrearages are paid, or the share extinguished. No member can hold more than four shares of stock. The shares may be transferred, by the transfer being entered on the books of the Society. Until Oct. 1st, 1873, the stock shall be sold at its par value, and after that date at its actual value.

ART. 3. Nine shareholders shall be chosen by ballot of the members as a *Board of Directors*, who shall hold office one year, and they shall choose a President, Vice-President, Superintendent, Cashier, and Secretary, and the President, Superintendent, and Cashier shall act as an *Executive Committee*.

ART. 4. The *Board of Directors* shall meet once a month, and shall hold special meetings whenever they may be called by the President or five members of the Board, by giving notice to each of the members one day prior to such meeting. They shall decide in all cases of lease, purchase, or sale of real estate, the erection of buildings, salaries, or other compensation to employés, the kind of business to be carried on, and such questions as may be referred to it by the Executive Committee, and shall have power to enact By-Laws for the regulation of the Society, and to fill vacancies in their number.

ART. 5. The Executive Committee shall have charge of all business not reserved to the Board of Directors. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Society, and the Vice-President shall act in his absence. The Superintendent shall conduct the business of the Society under the direction of the Executive Committee. He shall secure the Society against loss by his default, and shall not vote on questions of salaries. The Cashier shall have an oversight of the receipts and expenditures. The Secretary shall keep a record of the transactions of the Society.

ART. 6. A Convention of the members shall be held on the first Tuesday of each quarter, and a special convention may be called by posting a notice, signed by ten members, in the stores, eight days prior to such meeting.

ART. 7. At the close of each quarter, one-fourth of the net profits shall be added to the capital stock, one-fourth shall be paid as a dividend on stock, and one-half paid as a dividend on sales, in proportion to the amount of goods bought by each buyer.

ART. 8. Contracts shall be made, when practicable, with dealers in goods which the Society does not keep, for a reduction on regular prices to members of the Society.

ART. 9. All goods bought or sold by the Society shall be paid for when purchased. A list of prices of all goods kept, so far as practicable, shall be posted in the stores, and strictly adhered to.

ART. 10. The legal signature of the Society for all transactions directly controlled by the Board of Directors, shall be that of the President and Secretary, and for all other transactions, that of the Superintendent.

BY-LAWS.

1. Dividend Tickets shall be issued to all buyers to the amount of goods bought at retail, and the sales dividend shall be paid on the amount of tickets returned each quarter.

2. Contract Tickets shall be issued to members at the contract stores, to the amount of goods purchased, excluding articles excepted by the contracts.

3. All tickets shall be returnable to the store during the last three days of each quarter, and dividends will be paid from the 5th to the 15th of the following month.

4. From April 1st to October 1st, the stores shall be open from 6 A.M. to 8 P.M., and from October 1st to April 1st, from 7 A.M. to 8 P.M.

BUSINESS STATEMENT.

After spending about one month in soliciting and effecting an organization, in the latter part of October, 1872, with twenty members (several others having subscribed but not paid), and a capital of \$350 paid in (\$150 of which was paid by the Superintendent, Cashier, and one other, \$50 each), and \$350 advanced by the Superintendent, a stock of goods was bought and a store opened. The first month the store was kept by the Superintendent, with the help of a boy, at \$25 a month; but the sales were so small that the second month, until near its close, the store was kept by the Superintendent alone. The business the first quarter (November and December) did not pay expenses

by \$140. The capital paid in at the close of the first quarter was \$461, and the Society owed the Superintendent \$360.

The prospect at this time was not flattering, excepting that the business was steadily increasing. The net profit for the second quarter was \$100, which left a deficit still of \$40. This was paid the third quarter, and a dividend declared. The Superintendent was absent at the close of the fourth quarter (from September 22 to October 9th), and the Auditors declared a dividend on an erroneous balance, which accounts for the discrepancy between the net profit and the dividends at that time.

Since March 31, 1873, the business has paid an interest on the stock at the rate of 40 per cent. per annum, compounded quarterly. The selling price of a share is now \$28, which premium of 12 per cent. is caused by the retained dividends which are added to the stock. There are a few shares unsold.

TABULAR STATEMENT.

Quarter Ending.	Amount of capital at close of quarter.	Merchandise bought during the quarter.	Merchandise sold during the quarter.	Average monthly expense.	Net profit for quarter.	Dividend on stock.	Dividend on sales.	No. of members at close of quarter.	No. of shares taken at close of quarter.
December 31, 1872.....	\$461	\$1,360	\$733	\$123	29	32
March 31, 1873.....	671	2,198	2,596	104	\$105	33	40
June 30, 1873.....	826	4,716	5,152	161	249	10	3	34	44
September 30, 1873.....	1,280	7,178	6,859	244	177	14	5	45	61
December 31, 1873.....	1,538	6,105	7,413	265	368	10	2	48	63

AVERAGE DAILY SALES EACH MONTH.

November, 1872.....	\$ 9 13	June, 1873.....	\$78 20
December, 1872.....	20 60	July, 1873.....	69 84
January, 1873.....	26 44	August, 1873.....	94 68
February, 1873.....	31 43	September, 1873.....	96 60
March, 1873.....	43 42	October, 1873.....	82 80
April, 1873.....	52 15	November, 1873.....	94 23
May, 1873.....	68 20	December, 1873.....	108 00
Week ending January 17, 1874.....	141 41		

We give examples showing how the Society has succeeded as a savings institution: One member, who has paid for a share by instalments, and paid \$20.72, has received in cash \$10.66, and has a share worth \$28. One member with one share of stock, has received in cash, from dividends and contracts, \$23.09. The highest amount paid one member at one time, with four shares of stock, and from all accounts, is \$26.46.

THE CASH SYSTEM

Is a prominent feature of the Society. The evils and loss caused by the credit system, which so generally prevails throughout the country, are incalculable. The expense of keeping books and making and collecting bills, the largely increased capital required for the business, and the loss from bad debts, make

it necessary to charge considerably more profit on the goods. The buyer, besides having to pay higher prices, usually buys more largely than he would do if obliged to pay at the time of purchasing, he buys goods which he is not certain when he can pay for, and the day for payment is often a day of sorrow. But for this pernicious credit system, the people of the country would know comparatively little of "hard times." The man who "pays as he goes," seldom knows anything of hard times. One good result of the Society is the adoption of the cash system by fifteen grocery firms of this city.

CONTRACTS.

Our Contractors agree to sell their goods to our members as low as they sell to any buyers, at retail, and to return to us a certain per cent.—varying from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 15—of the money. The business is conducted by the use of tickets, in the same manner as our dividend on sales, and after retaining ten per cent. of the amount, to pay the expense of the contract business, the balance is paid to the members at the close of each quarter. Some members have made a considerable saving in this way, and the attention of members is especially called to the contracts.

Having thus briefly sketched the requirements for co-operative stores, as far as seemed necessary, while awaiting the publication of the practical treatise of the Executive Committee of the National Grange, let us in a few words indicate our views of the best method of adapting it to the purposes of the Order of Patrons of Husbandry.

We believe that it will be found the best plan for the Subordinate Grange to furnish the necessary capital for first starting from its own treasury, or levy a tax to raise the amount. In exceptional cases, it may be advisable to accept a loan for a part of the amount, in order that the store may the sooner be put in operation; but in every case such loan should be made from a Patron, and, if possible, a member of the Grange establishing the store, and should be made to the Grange, and not to any individual.

Great care should be taken in the selection of the superintendent or manager of the store. He should be a man of unimpeachable integrity and honesty, acquainted with the best methods of transacting business; a good judge of goods, a skilful and courteous salesman, and one whose heart is in the enterprise and who is bound to make it a success. He should be a Patron and actively interested in the prosperity of the Grange. There should be no hesitation about paying such a salary as will secure a thoroughly competent man. It does not need an extravagant sum to do this; but a man of integrity, who understands his business

and does it well, is worth four times as much as a lazy, ignorant, and boorish fellow, even if the latter is perfectly honest.

As the Order is utterly opposed to the credit system in all its transactions, the exclusive and rigid adherence to the cash system in the co-operative store will occasion no trouble. If the store has been started upon borrowed money, one-half the net profits should be devoted to the payment of that money until the debt is extinguished.

The purposes and benevolent enterprises of the Grange being so much more extensive than those of any ordinary co-operative society, there would need to be some difference in the mode of disposing of the profits which will accrue from this and other co-operative movements. It would probably be best that one-fourth or possibly one-third of the net profits should be divided among the members of the Grange, in proportion to their purchases. This, with the actual reduction from ordinary prices effected by the moderate rate of profit charged by the co-operative store, would give them an average reduction of from 20 to 25 per cent. on the price of goods purchased. Until all borrowed money obtained for starting the store, if any, is paid, one-half of the net profits should go to extinguishing that debt. That paid, the remaining net profits (one-third being divided among the purchasers who are members of the Grange) should be divided into two equal parts, one part being reserved to furnish additional capital, or to be a guaranty, insurance, and benefit fund, and the other applied to other purposes for the benefit of the entire membership of the Grange. Among these may be named the providing and increasing a library for the Grange, or the addition of a reading-room to it; the supplying the Grange-room with a good musical instrument for its meetings; the providing, in the case of young or recently organized Granges, of the necessary furniture, tables, crockery, etc., etc., for its social meetings and festivals. Where the Granges are large and wealthy several of them might unite their funds thus procured in erecting an elevator or a packing-house, or in the South a cotton-gin and cotton-packing establishment, to enable the Patrons to save some of the present exorbitant charges in marketing their products.

Of these various beneficent objects we regard the establishment of a library and reading-room as, perhaps, the most important, as

tending more directly than any other to the intellectual improvement of all the members of the Grange. Whatever will make the Grange-room more attractive to all Patrons, whether it be a library or reading-room, musical instruments, or the apparatus for facilitating social enjoyment, has not only a tendency to elevate and improve its membership, but to render the Grange a permanent and enduring institution.

We have demonstrated on a previous page the disadvantage to a co-operative society of allowing outsiders to participate equally with its members in the profits of the co-operative store. This disadvantage would be still more marked in the case of the Grange. The advantages of purchasing from the co-operative store at the same rates accorded to members, should be allowed them, and these are so considerable that they will attract a large patronage; but if they want anything more, they must make application to be admitted as members of the Grange. This restriction will tend to increase our membership, while at the same time it gives us a wider sphere of usefulness and larger means for carrying out our beneficent plans.

Every Grange should have a benefit fund from which they can aid a brother or sister who is in trouble or want, or can prevent the poorer or more unfortunate members of the Grange from becoming the prey of sharpers and adventurers; and such a fund can be most easily established by consecrating to it a portion of the profits of co-operative stores.

The *contract system*, as we have explained it, can be established with great advantage by the Granges, both in places where they are not strong enough to start co-operative stores, and in the purchase of articles not kept in those stores; but we think a large portion of the amount realized should be left in the hands of the Treasurer of the Grange. If these profits were to be divided equally, one-half distributed to the purchasers by contract, the other half retained in the Grange Treasury for the purposes indicated above, we believe the holders of the contract tickets would be as well satisfied and the best interests of the Grange greatly promoted thereby.

We have left ourselves no space to speak of co-operative manufactories, co-operative savings banks, co-operative banking, co-operative ploughing, mowing, reaping, etc., etc., etc., partly because

we prefer that these should be handled with the wider knowledge and more ample experience of the Executive Committee, and partly because these are matters which (excepting the first, which does not properly belong to Patrons) need more space than we can give them here, for their full elucidation. Meantime, we may say that we regard the Grange as destined to lead the way in a more full development of all the places of co-operation than has ever yet taken place.

PATRON'S PARLIAMENTARY GUIDE.

In the Sessions of the Grange, questions of Parliamentary usage frequently arise, which the Master, unless he has had large experience in presiding over public bodies, often finds it difficult to decide. To aid the Masters in this matter, we have obtained permission to insert, complete, the PATRON'S PARLIAMENTARY GUIDE, prepared by *Worthy Master* D. Wyatt Aiken, of S. C., now a member of the Executive Committee of the National Grange; and we would commend the study of it to every officer of every Grange:—

MEETINGS.

1. Every Subordinate Grange should have an appointed hour as well as place of meeting, and all Patrons should be punctually prompt. At *regular* meetings, the entire order of business as prescribed by the Manual may be gone through with; but at *special* meetings no work can be done but conferring Degrees.

2. *Regular* meetings must be held at least once a month, or oftener, if prescribed by the By-laws of the Grange; and only one meeting, *regular* or *special*, can be held within twenty-four hours.

QUORUM.

1. A quorum is the least number with which a Grange can be opened in due form, and should be prescribed in the by-laws of every Subordinate Grange. If not so prescribed, a quorum is a majority of the members of the Grange.

2. A quorum of a committee is a majority of all its members.

DUTIES OF MASTER.

1. Precisely at the hour appointed for meeting, the Master shall assume the chair and call the Grange to order. If a quorum be present,

he shall proceed to open the Grange in due form. If a quorum be not present, he shall vacate the chair and await a specified time for the assembling of the members. If a quorum fails to appear, he shall not open the Grange.

2. The Master must at all times preserve proper decorum and quiet in the Grange, and never allow interruption of the proceedings by unnecessary private conversation, too much moving about, hasty personalities or exhibitions of temper in debate, or undignified and puerile behavior at any time by the members.

3. His decision on all constitutional points shall be final, subject, however, to an appeal to the Master of the State Grange, or through him to the Master of the National Grange.

4. He shall decide all questions of order, subject to an appeal to the Grange, when demanded by three members.

5. He may state a motion sitting, but must rise to put the question to the Grange.

6. In the proceedings of the Grange he shall conform exactly to the "Order of Business," as published in the Manual.

PRESIDING OFFICERS.

1. The Master being absent, the Overseer shall preside. The Master and Overseer being absent, their positions shall be filled by temporary elections.

2. The courtesy of the chair may at any and all times be extended to a Past Master.

COMMITTEES.

1. Committees are of two kinds: special and standing. *Special* committees are raised for a particular purpose, and are considered discharged when that purpose is served. *Standing* committees are raised for the general good of the Order, and may continue in existence for one year.

2. All committees, unless otherwise ordered by the Grange, shall consist of three members, and be appointed by the Master. The member first named on a committee shall be considered its chairman (though each committee shall be privileged to elect its own chairman), who shall convene the committee and report the result of its deliberations. In his absence the next-named member shall take his place and perform his duties.

THEIR REPORTS.

1. When a committee is called upon for its report, the chairman, or some other selected member, shall rise in his place and read the report, and hand it to the Master, who will then submit it to the Grange.

2. The report of any committee may be altered or amended, adopted or rejected, as determined by a majority of the Grange, but should never be discussed until read by the Secretary, or from the chair by the Master. If the report contains simple statements of facts it may be considered as a whole. If it contain a preamble and resolutions, the resolutions may be considered *seriatim*, and the preamble voted upon subsequently.

VOTING.

1. In all elections the voting must be done by ballot, and a majority will decide the election, except in the case of a candidate for membership, when three black balls or opposing votes will reject the applicant.

2. All other voting, except when a division of the Grange is called for, shall be done by the voting sign of the Order. The question to be voted upon about being decided, the Master shall say, "All voting in the affirmative will manifest it by the voting sign of the Order." He will then count and note the number. He will then say, "All voting in the negative will manifest it by the voting sign of the Order," and count as before, and announce the result. Every member present should be required to vote, or, not voting, should be counted in the negative.

3. The voting sign is precise, and the Master shall always require it to be given accurately.

4. When a vote is taken by ballot the Master shall vote as other members. In all other cases he shall not vote, except where there is a tie, in which case, if he fails to vote, the question shall be decided lost.

MOTIONS.

1. No motion can be made unless the mover rises and addresses the Chair.

2. All motions or resolutions, when demanded by two or more members, or by the Master, shall be reduced to writing. They must be read aloud by the mover or Secretary, seconded, and then repeated by the Master, before they can be debated; and when stated from the chair, they are in possession of the Grange, and cannot be withdrawn except by the consent of a majority. When properly stated, the Master should give the preference of the floor to the mover if he rises to speak.

3. Any motion containing more than one subject may be divided when demanded by two members, and a vote taken on each subject.

4. Whenever any business is presented to the Grange in a crude, unfinished shape, it may, by motion, be referred to a committee for maturing and perfecting. This is called a commitment.

5. If the committee report, and the subject-matter be so altered as to require further reflection, by motion, it may be recommitted to the same or another committee. This is called a recommitment.

TIMES OF SPEAKING.

1. No member shall be allowed to speak more than once upon the same question, unless by consent of the Grange; but this shall not prevent his speaking every time the same subject is presented in the form of a different question.

2. The length of time allowed each speaker shall be determined by the Grange.

3. After the question is submitted in the affirmative, and before the negative vote is taken, any member may rise to speak and continue the discussion.

DEBATE.

1. No member, while speaking, shall mention any one present by name, but shall describe him as the member on my right, or left; the member who last spoke, or last but one; or the member on the other side of the question; or who offered the amendment; or my colleague, etc. Nor shall any member interrupt another while speaking.

2. When two or more members arise at the same time, the Master shall allow the floor to the one farthest from the Chair. Every member shall rise from his seat to speak, and shall address the Master on rising.

3. All offensive language, personal allusions, or discourteous conduct must be scrupulously avoided, and any member using exceptional words in debate must be at once called to order, and not permitted to proceed without consent of the Grange.

PRIVILEGED QUESTIONS.

1. While a subject is under consideration, certain motions may be submitted and claim precedence for decision, though themselves not all debatable. These motions are called privileged questions, are as follows, and have precedence in the order in which they are arranged, the first three of which shall be decided without debate:

1. A motion to adjourn.
2. A motion to lie on the table.
3. A motion for the previous question.
4. A motion to postpone to a day certain.
5. A motion to commit.
6. A motion to amend.
7. A motion to postpone indefinitely.

TO ADJOURN.

1. A motion to adjourn is always in order in deliberative bodies, and is only superseded by a motion to fix the day to which the assembly shall adjourn.

2. A State Grange may adjourn from day to day till the day of closing. But a Subordinate Grange cannot entertain a motion to adjourn, because the Master will proceed to "close" the Grange as soon as the "labors of the day are closed."

LIE ON THE TABLE.

1. A motion to lie on the table may be made to effect two ends: first, to temporarily postpone—that is, to lie on the table until some other question is disposed of, after which the subject may be taken again from the table: secondly, to lie on the table unconditionally, which, if carried in the affirmative, prevents a discussion of the question tabled during that session of the Grange unless through a vote of reconsideration.

2. If a motion to lie on the table is decided in the affirmative, the main question, with all the motions pertaining thereto, is removed from before the Grange. To lay an amendment upon the table carries with it the question proposed to be amended.

THE PREVIOUS QUESTION.

1. A motion for the previous question shall be put as follows: The Master shall say, "*Shall the main question be now put?*" A majority shall decide, and the effect will be to stop debate and bring the Grange to a direct vote, first upon the question under immediate discussion, and finally upon the main question, out of which secondary questions may have arisen.

2. No debate should ever be allowed upon the previous question after it is properly demanded.

POSTPONEMENT TO A DAY CERTAIN.

1. When any subject is postponed to a day certain, it is called the order for that day. There may be two or more orders for the same day.

2. If no hour is fixed, then subjects in the order named take precedence of all other business for every part of that day until disposed of. If an hour is fixed for each subject on the appointed day, each becomes a *special order* for its hour.

3. When a special order is called for, the regular business is postponed until the special order is disposed of.

TO COMMIT.

1. A motion to commit may be amended by substituting a new committee; by increasing or reducing the number of members of the committee; or it may be accompanied by instructions to the committee to introduce some particular amendment. If this latter motion be carried in the affirmative, the main question and everything pertaining thereto is placed in the hands of the committee, who will report according to the directions given. In all other cases the committee may make such report as it judges best.

AMENDMENTS.

1. Amendments must be decided before the questions from which they arise, and may be proposed in three ways: 1st, by inserting or adding a word, phrase, sentence, or section; 2d, by striking out some particular word, phrase, sentence, or section; and 3d, by striking out some particular part and inserting in its stead some other word, phrase, sentence, or section.

2. An amendment once adopted cannot be further amended, except by reconsideration. But it is in order to propose an amendment to an amendment while the first amendment is under consideration. A motion to amend an amendment to an amendment is not in order.

3. An amendment assumes the form of a substitute when it becomes a new proposition, though relating to the subject under consideration.

INDEFINITE POSTPONEMENT.

1. A motion to indefinitely postpone may be amended by a motion to postpone to some day certain; but its passage with or without amend-

ment suppresses a question without coming to a direct vote thereon in a way that cannot be renewed during the same session of the Grange without reconsideration.

DIVISION OF THE GRANGE.

1. Whenever any member doubts the correctness of the decision of the Master upon any question, he may call for a division.

2. The result of the vote in this case will be arrived at by those voting in the affirmative rising to their feet and standing until counted by the A. S. and L. A. S. as tellers, then resuming their seats, when those voting in the negative will rise to be counted. The tellers will report each count to the Master, who will announce the result.

THE QUESTION.

1. Any subject submitted by any member for the consideration of the Grange is called a motion or resolution, and when it is stated by the Master it is called the question.

2. Whenever deliberation upon any question appears to be closed, the Master shall rise and say, "Is the Grange ready for the question?" Unless interrupted, he will then proceed to state the question and take the vote upon it.

3. Whenever the Master can reasonably suppose there will be no objection to his decision, he may economize time and despatch business by dispensing with a formal vote, and saying, "If no objection be offered, the report will be received," "the petition will be granted," "the Secretary will read the paper," "the member has leave to withdraw his motion," etc., etc., etc.

DIVISION OF THE QUESTION.

1. Any member may call for a division of the question when it contains two or more distinct points.

2. The member calling for a division should state the form of division, and, if seconded, the Grange may order a division; but it must be done by a vote, as the question of division assumes the nature of an amendment.

QUESTIONS OF ORDER.

1. When a question of order arises it suspends the proceedings, and should be decided without debate, after which the proceedings are resumed at the point of suspension.

2. Usually such questions are decided by the Master; if, however, his decision is not satisfactory, any member may object to it, and have the question decided by the Grange. This is called *appealing* from the decision of the Chair, and is placed in the possession of the Grange by the following words from the Master: "Shall the decision of the Chair stand as the decision of the Grange?" This question is debatable, and may be participated in by the Master.

RECONSIDERATION.

1. When any question has been decided, either affirmatively or negatively, it is competent for any member who voted with the majority to move a reconsideration at the same meeting. If, however, the subject upon which the vote was taken shall have been announced by authority and gone out of possession of the Grange, a motion to reconsider will not be in order.

YEAS AND NAYS.

1. Should a member call for the "yeas and nays," the Master will say: "There is a call for the yeas and nays; those in favor of the call will rise." If five members present rise, he will say: "The yeas and nays are ordered." He will then state the question and say: "Those voting in the affirmative will say 'yea,' when their names are called; and those of a contrary opinion 'nay,' when their names are called; the Secretary will call the roll." The roll having been called, the Secretary reads aloud the names of those voting in the affirmative and then those voting in the negative, that corrections may be made, adds up the members on either side and hands the result to the Master, who announces it to the Grange.

COMMITTEE OF THE WHOLE.

1. In deliberative assemblies matters of vital moment are usually referred to a committee of the whole house. Some member moves "we now go into a committee of the whole" upon any certain question. The presiding officer puts the question, "Shall the house now resolve itself into a committee of the whole to take under consideration" such a matter, naming the subject. If determined in the affirmative, he vacates the chair, selects a chairman from the assembly, and seats himself among the members. The house, if it prefers, may elect the chairman.

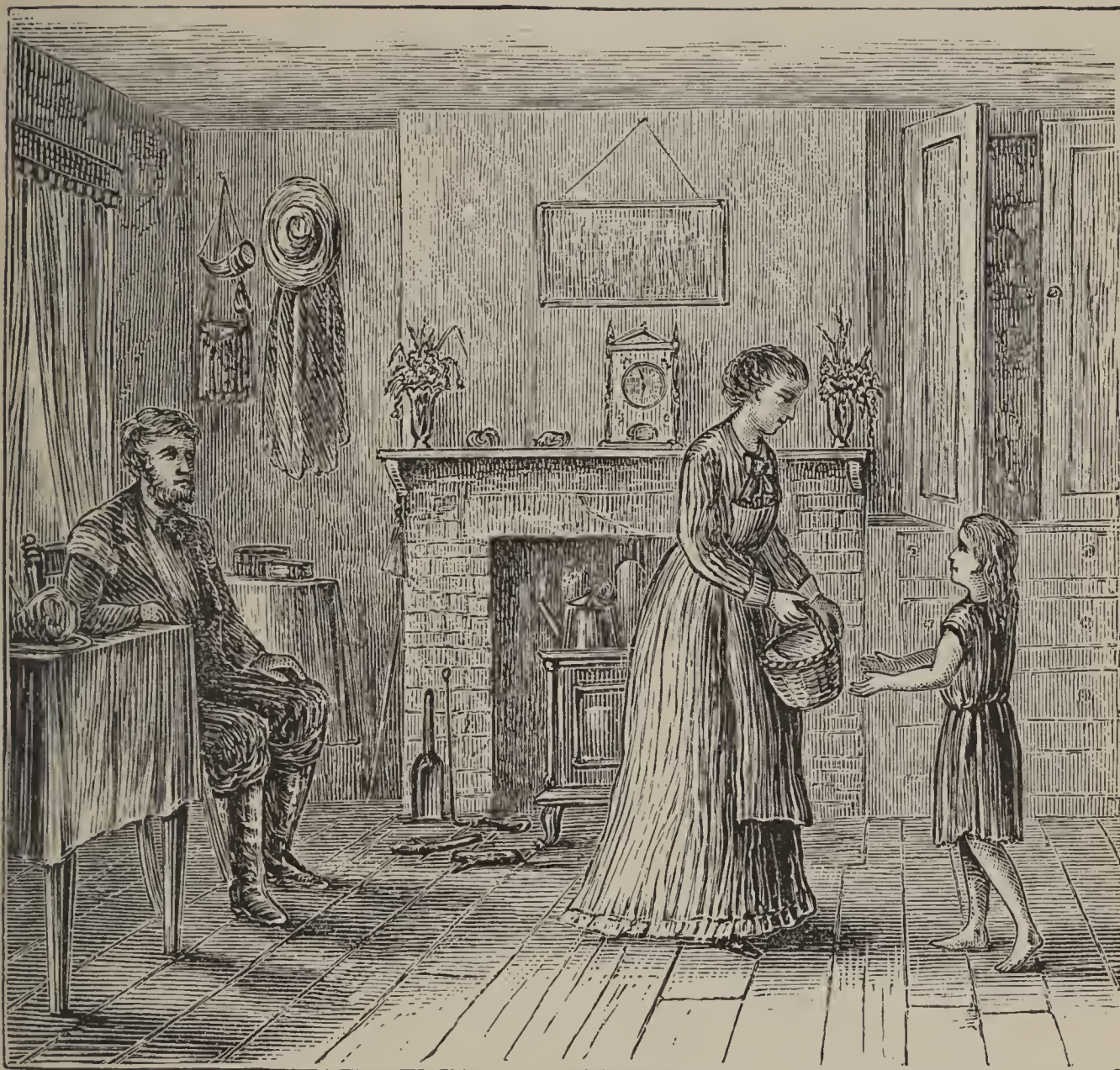
2. The committee of the whole never adjourns, but rises, and through their chairman reports progress to the assembly.

3. Such a procedure is not applicable to a Grange, and must never be resorted to. No question can arise in a Grange that the Grange may not fully discuss in its organized capacity; and should the Master be required to vacate his chair, his successor is already appointed by the Ritual.

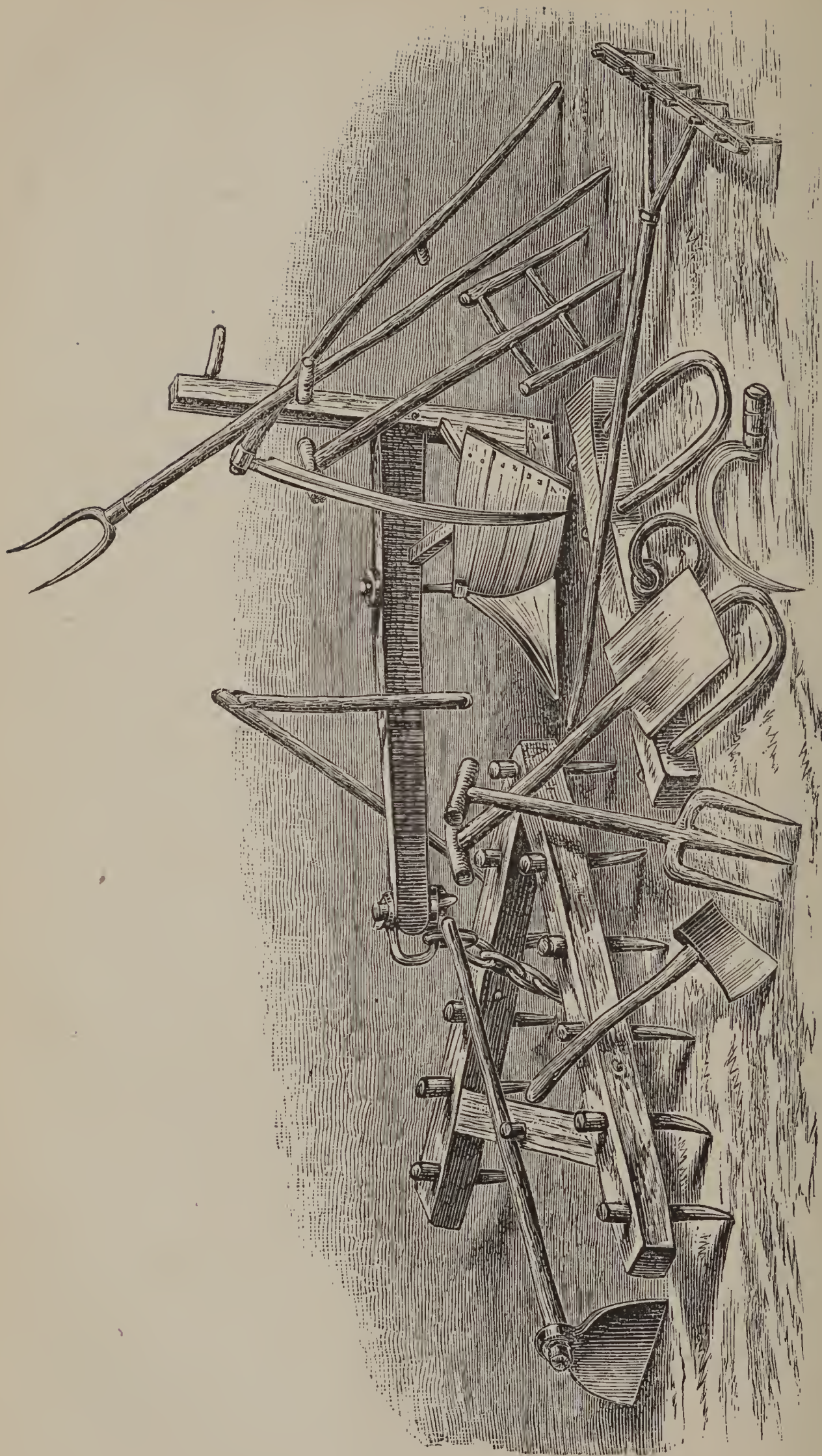
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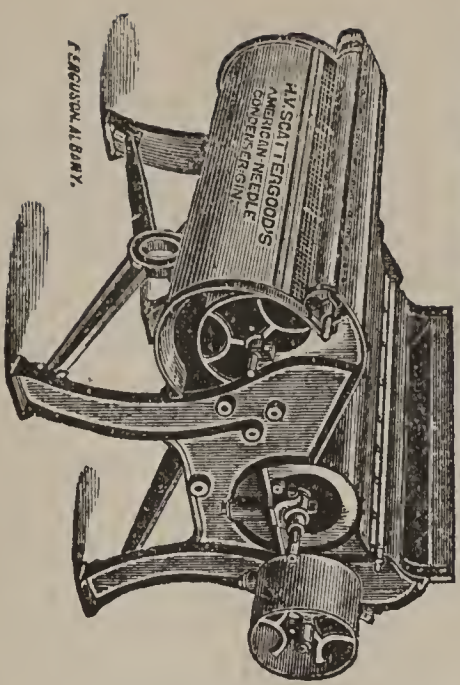
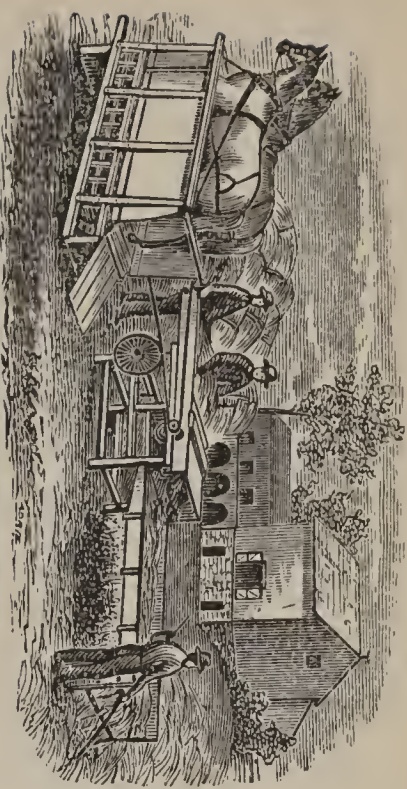
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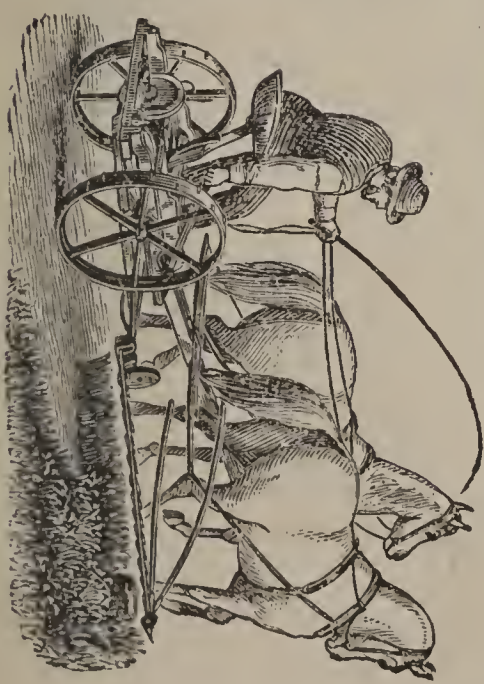
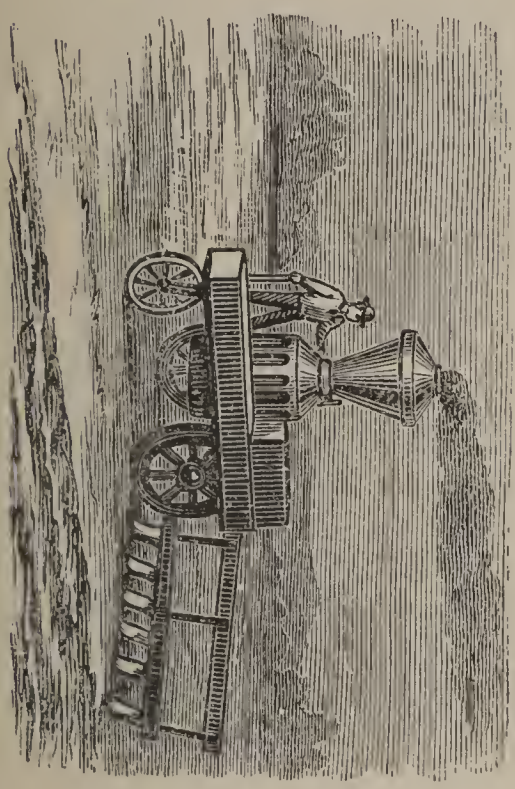
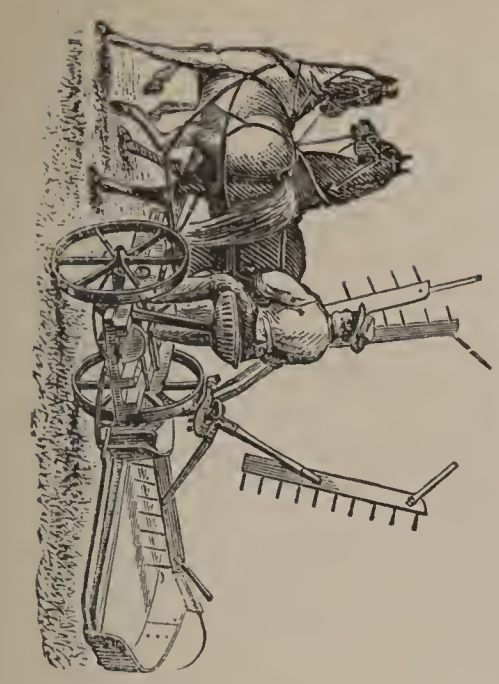
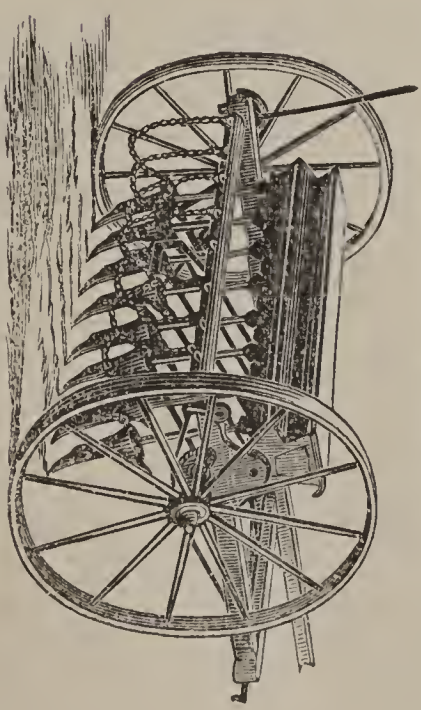
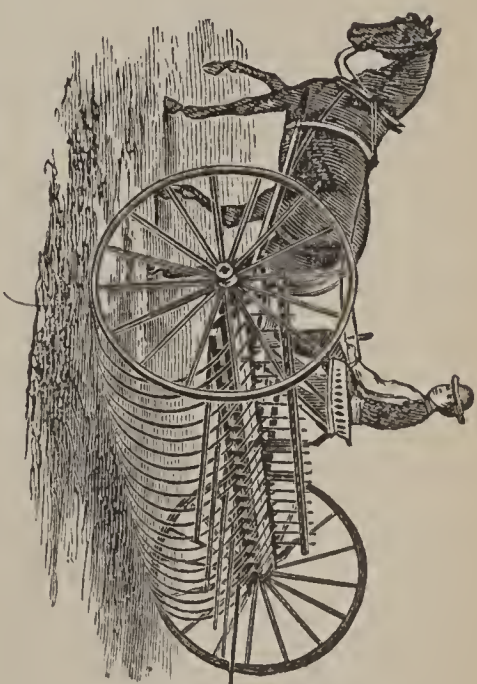
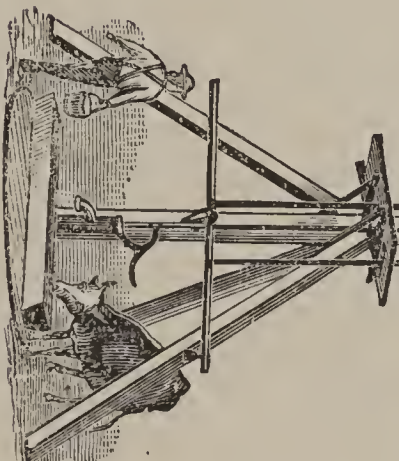
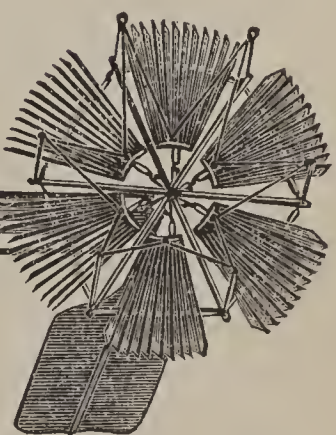
HUSBANDMAN AND MATRON.



FARMING IMPLEMENTS IN USE ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO.



J. L. CUSHMAN, ALBANY.



LABOR-**SAVING** FARMING MACHINERY—SHOWING THE MARCH OF CIVILIZATION.

Part II.

Agriculture and Horticulture.

THE FARM,

I. THE FARMER'S CREED.

BY HENRY WARD BEECHER.

WE believe in small farms and thorough cultivation.

We believe that soil loves to eat as well as its owner, and ought, therefore, to be manured.

We believe in large crops which leave the land better than they found it—making both the farm and the farmer rich at once.

We believe in going to the bottom of things, and therefore in deep plowing, and enough of it. All the better if with a sub-soil plow.

We believe that every farm should own a good farmer.

We believe that the best fertilizer of any soil is a spirit of industry, enterprise, and intelligence—without this, lime and gypsum, bones and green manure, marl and guano, will be of little use.

We believe in good fences, good barns, good farm-houses, good stock, good orchards, and children enough to gather the fruit.

We believe in a clean kitchen, a neat wife in it, a spinning-piano, a clean cupboard, a clean dairy, and a clean conscience.

We firmly disbelieve in farmers that will not improve; in farms that grow poorer every year, in starveling cattle; in farmers' boys turning into clerks and merchants; in farmers' daughters unwilling to work; and in all farmers ashamed of their vocation, or who drink whiskey till honest people are ashamed of them.

II. THE SIZE OF THE FARM. DO LARGE OR SMALL FARMS PAY BEST?

This question, often asked by novices in farming, is not one which admits of a categorical answer. Much depends upon

locality; quite as much perhaps on the character and condition of the soil, and still more upon the kind of crops to be cultivated or the branch of farming to be followed. Thus in the vicinity of a great city and its fine markets, a farm of ten, fifteen, or twenty acres, or even less, devoted to market-garden products and small fruits, is more profitable than a larger farm less thoroughly cultivated. From a small tract like this the skilful farmer can raise enough to lay up \$2,000, \$3,000 or \$5,000 a year, which is more than the owners of farms of 200 to 300 acres can often do. At a greater distance from a large market, the farmer, whose lands are not very productive and who raises a variety of crops, hay from his meadows, potatoes, root crops, and squashes from his hill-sides, corn, oats, rye, and perhaps a little buckwheat and barley from his more tillable lands, and who devotes a portion of his farm to pasturage for horses, cows, and sheep, requires from 150 to 250 acres for a farm; and though even he would do better on 100 acres by higher manuring and cultivation, yet it may be difficult to make him think so. Even in these farms remote from large markets, if they are moderately accessible to railroads or canals, there are crops which can be profitably cultivated on a much smaller farm. The hop-grower, though his crop is somewhat uncertain, cannot usually devote more than ten or twelve acres to advantage to that crop, but those acres must be as rich as a flower-garden. He may require twelve or fifteen acres for other crops, but, as a general rule, twenty-five or thirty acres is a sufficient farm for his purposes. Tobacco is another crop which can be profitably cultivated on a very moderate quantity of land. It is possible to cultivate this crop to advantage on one or two hundred acres if the farmer has the capital, the manures and the curing-houses and apparatus for its preparation for market; but very successful and profitable tobacco farming has been done on little farms of from twenty-five to fifty acres. Silk culture is best conducted on a moderate scale. The silk-worms die if they are collected in too large numbers, and those cultivators are most successful who devote to this work only eight or ten acres of mulberry trees, and a cocoonery with less than half a million of worms.

The wheat-growers on the level and fertile lands of Western New York, or on the still more fertile prairies of the Mississippi

Valley or the Northwest, is limited in the size of his farm only by his capacity to plow it thoroughly, to furnish sufficient seed and to restore to the soil the constituents taken from it by the crop. Under these limitations his farm may consist of 100, 1,000, or 10,000 acres. The same limitations may apply to the farmer in those rich bottom lands, whose principal crops are wheat, Indian corn, pork, and wool. There are farms in the Illinois bottom lands of 20,000, 30,000, and 40,000 acres which are profitably cultivated; but the men who have the genius for such extensive farming are few. Stock-raising, as it is conducted on the Plains, in the Indian Territory, in Texas, in Colorado and New Mexico, in Wyoming and California, requires very large farms. Stock-raising is, as ordinarily conducted, the lowest form of agriculture: not that the owner and manager of a large stock farm is not generally a man of intelligence, culture, and ability, but that he must of necessity be surrounded by so many herdsmen, cattle-drivers, etc., who are of a low grade of general intelligence; the farmer's profession, like all others, should be one of intellectual growth and progress, and this growth and progress should reach and lift up even the lowliest. This is almost impracticable on a stock-farm. For the pasturage and winter feeding of a large herd of cattle or sheep, there is needed from 1,000 to 50,000 acres of land, and there are a considerable number of stock-farms which considerably exceed the largest quantity named. It is questionable whether in the not far distant future, with our rapidly increasing population, such extensive tracts of fertile land can be spared for this purpose, and whether this whole system of stock-farming may not be revolutionized in the next fifty or one hundred years, and stock reared and fattened for the market by a soiling process, which shall leave these vast tracts to the careful culture of the husbandman.

The culture of fruits does not ordinarily require very large farms. The peach orchards of New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, and of Western Michigan and Illinois, are usually of but moderate extent; 40, 50, 60, or 100 acres being the usual limits, though rarely an orchard of 200 to 300 acres is found. The small fruit farms are still smaller, many of them ranging only from ten to thirty acres. The vineyards of Western Pennsylvania, Central New York, Northern and Southern Ohio, Missouri,

and Arkansas are likewise of moderate size, from 50 to 100 acres being the average ; those of California, being often owned and managed by incorporated companies, are larger, but the small vineyards, if well managed, do nearly as well as the larger.

The best answer, then, which can be given to this question, is, that taking fully into consideration the accessibility of the farm to a good market and the kind and character of the crops to be produced, the farm should be no larger than the farmer can successfully and thoroughly cultivate ; that it is infinitely better to raise a given amount of grain, Indian corn, root crops, or fruit on twenty acres than on two hundred, and that by high and careful cultivation a small tract of land may be made to yield a large crop every year, while it is very difficult to secure that result from a large tract.

III. DRAINAGE.

An eminent agricultural writer has said that “drainage deepens the soil, assists vegetation, lengthens the season for labor and vegetation, precludes the necessity for replanting, prevents the freezing out of winter crops, promotes the absorption of fertilizers, supplies air to the roots of plants, improves the quality and quantity of crops, and tends to prevent drought.” These succinct statements have been proved true by abundant observation and experience.

What lands should be drained ? The question is an important one, and should be fairly answered. We doubt if there are many farms in the United States which would not be the better for draining, but inasmuch as the improvement is somewhat expensive, and on some lands the advantages gained will not speedily defray the cost, these may be left out of the account. The lands most benefited by draining are: 1st. All swamps, marshes, and visibly wet lands ; these have generally a rich soil, and if properly drained, burned over, and thoroughly broken up, they will form the best portion of the farm. 2d. High lands and hill-sides which are “springy,” and hold too much water at any season of the year. These lands, whether in grass or cultivated crops, will pay for the drainage by the increase in quantity and improvement in quality of their crops in two years, and the drainage, if properly made, will last from fifty to a hundred. Lands which are too wet in the spring for early planting will be greatly improved by drainage.

In most sections from two to four weeks in the season can be thus gained, and that gain is sufficient in a large district of country to make the difference between a good corn crop and a partial or complete failure.

Land on which water stands and freezes in the winter should be drained. It will thus be rendered more porous and friable, and will yield earlier and better crops. All land which has a stiff clay subsoil should be drained, and if the clay is deep, it should be bored through or wells sunk to allow the water to penetrate to the sand. Finally, sandy lands should be drained as a protection from drought. Experience proves that such lands stand a dry season very much better than those through which the early rains have leached, and from which all moisture has been drawn away.

Wherever a fall of three inches in a hundred feet can be secured there is no difficulty in draining; in some of the prairie lands in the Mississippi Valley this is more than the average, but in these cases, where drainage is necessary or desirable, wells can be dug at suitable distances and the drains directed into them.

What is the best method of draining? By tiles, undoubtedly, where they can be procured at a moderate expense. The round tile is the cheapest and best. The earthen collar to secure the joints is an important addition to it, but in default of this a bit of shingle underneath and a firm piece of turf above answers almost as good a purpose. The main or head drains should be from three to four inches in diameter; but the minor or sub-mains usually need not be more than one, one and a half, or one and three-fourths inches in diameter. These latter will not cost usually over from \$10 to \$13 per 1,000, while the larger tiles (3 to 4 inches) range from \$25 to \$40 per 1,000. Where there are peat-bogs convenient the tile can be made of peat, by a simple instrument, and after drying in the sun they will answer a good purpose.

In stony and rough lands drains may be made of stone—the floor of cobble or broken stone if it is to be had, and the two sides of flat stone, or the whole of three flat stones placed in the form of a triangle if preferred. Brush drains break down so soon, and furnish such convenient homes for the burrowing animals, mice, rats, moles, woodchucks, gophers, and musk-rats, while they do last, that they hardly pay for laying. Open drains are not desirable.

They furnish traps for injuring cattle, obstruct plowing, take up a large portion of the land, are liable to be trodden in, and form a convenient home for burrows.

The distance of drains from each other depends upon their depth, and this again depends upon the depth of frost. In the South and South-west three feet is deep enough; in the North and North-west they should be four feet deep. But the shallower the drains the nearer they must be together; the rule being for three-foot drains that they should be forty feet apart, while for four-foot drains sixty feet distance is not too much. They should be constructed directly down the slopes, and when they cannot be conducted into a running stream should flow into the main or principal drain, and this should discharge into a stream or well.

A plow known as the mole plow has been invented and used to a considerable extent for making these drains, the surface being taken off by a subsoil plow. By an ingenious attachment the tile is threaded upon a rope attached to the mole of the plow, and thus laid not quite so perfectly as by hand, but tolerably. Still, except where a large tract is to be drained within a short time, as in some of the prairie farms, the old method of digging the drains by hand is to be preferred. There are a number of tools for this purpose, but most of them can be made from old and worn-out spades by the grindstone. They are generally required to be somewhat narrower than the common spade, and the lower edge may be slightly rounded. Of the 13-inch tile 15 are required to the rod, and where the drains are forty feet apart, 1,006 tile will be required to the acre; where they are 60 feet apart, 671 to the acre.

IV. PLOWING.

What is the best plow? asks the novice. There is no best plow for all purposes, we answer. Every farm of considerable size needs two, three, four, or more plows, different patterns. The object of plowing is not simply to break up the surface, whether that surface be sod or stubble; it is to pulverize the soil, to mingle the surface with the deeper portion, to kill weeds, to keep the surface fresh, and by exposing new soil to the influence of the air, the sun, and the rain, to sweeten it and fit it to yield larger crops. The plow which will do this best on fresh and

hitherto unplowed prairie soil would not answer at all on rough and stony side hills, nor would it accomplish much good in a deep, wet, and marshy soil. On all except very light and sandy or otherwise barren soils, there lies below the superficial soil we have been cultivating a second farm, capable of producing nearly or quite as much as the surface soil. For root crops, especially, this deep soil is a necessity. It is almost as valuable for the cereals. Where there is clay just below the surface, especially if it is hard and tenacious, it should be thoroughly pulverized by the subsoil plow; we do not find it necessary or desirable to turn up the hard clay or to bring up the barren soil to the surface; it would take two or three years for such a mass to become fertilized; but we do need to have this subsoil thoroughly pulverized and loosened, so that the air can permeate it and the rains soak down through it, and the roots and fibres of the crops can penetrate it in all directions; by so doing we as effectually till and cultivate our under farm as if it were on the surface.

Again, we have a broad expanse of prairie to break up. It has never been plowed, and we want to put a crop of wheat or oats or Indian corn upon it; in this case we must turn over the sod in a flat furrow, and stirring the soil below five or six inches, we shall obtain a better crop than by a deeper plowing at first. By and by, when the sod is well rotted, and the first freshness and fertility of the surface is worn out, we go down a foot or more and bring up a new fertile soil, as rich as the first was, and by keeping the whole thoroughly pulverized and bringing up two or three inches at a time, we shall constantly renew the soil, and, until it begins to show signs of exhaustion, we need not apply any other fertilizers than the air, the sun, and the rain. There is an infinite variety of plows, constructed on a great variety of principles, the mold-board of some being a segment of a cylinder, of others a portion of the frustrum of a cone, the base being forward; while others still are hollowed out, but in irregular forms or combinations, having for their object the easy passage of the plow through deep and adhesive, or gravelly and stony soils. Others, again, have reversible shares and mold-boards, or double mold-boards and points. Most of the best plows now have a broad, strong, knife-like blade in front of the plow, which divides the turf or clod for the plow, and thus makes its draft easier. We have already

spoken of the subsoil plow, whose office it is to pulverize the subsoil without lifting it to the surface. There are numerous patterns of these, but all intended to accomplish the same end. The plows in most general use in the Eastern and Northern States are the Doe Plow, the Deep Tiller Plow, the Telegraph Plow, the Michigan Sod Plow, several patterns of the Nourse Plow, Allen's Cylinder Plow, Mead's Conical Plow, the Double Mold Plow, the Swivel Plow of the Ames Plow Co.; the Collins Cast-Steel Plow, of which there are several models; Dreere's steel plow for prairie use, and an iron curved beam plow by the same inventors; Grant's trenching plows, and Skinner's Gang Plow, which has two or three mold-boards attached to a strong frame with wheels, the plowman riding on a sulký seat. This is drawn by four horses abreast, and on level lands free from stone, like the wheatlands of the West or of California, does its work rapidly and well.

There are also several digging machines, some performing their work on the principle of the spade, some like a cutting toothed harrow, and some a combination of plow, spade, harrow, knife, and cultivator. Most of these work well on light smooth soils, without stones, or roots, or tough sod; but where the surface is rough they generally fail. Comstock's Spader or Rotary Digger, drawn by two or four horses, will spade in favorable circumstances about six acres a day. Though expensive, it is the best of the rotary diggers or spaders, having some advantage over Evans' or Mapes's. Share's Harrow and Coe's Digging Harrow are combinations of the plow and harrow used on corn or grain stubble lands, and the former, for sod turned for the first time, is very serviceable. Turner's combination of plow, harrow, cultivator, and seed-sower is a somewhat complex instrument, but answers a good purpose for corn planting, etc., on the bottom lands of Illinois, where it was invented, and would probably do well on other smooth and level lands.

Steam plows cannot as yet be considered a success. Some of them plow very well on the broad prairies of the West, but they are so expensive, usually costing from \$2,500 to \$5,000, so liable to get out of order, and require so many attendants, that it is more expensive to plow with them than with Skinner's Gang-plow, or even with the best of the single plows. There are two kinds

which have been candidates for public favor, viz., the steam plowing machine, which, with all its apparatus for locomotion, for rolling and for plowing, and requiring several attendants, traverses the field back and forth. The late Elias Howe, Jr., invented one of these, but it was a failure. A Mr. Fawkes, of Pennsylvania, constructed one which worked much better, but the expense of running it was so great that it did not pay. Other inventors are still at work on the same problem, but not yet with much success. Fowler's steam plow is merely a double gang of plows drawn to and fro by a very strong endless wire rope, driven by a stationary steam-engine at one end of the lot. This process can only be practicable on the largest farms, and where the lots are very large. It has worked very well in England and in Belgium, and moderately well on the great farms of the West, and particularly in California.

What is wanted is a much less expensive machine, which with only partially skilled labor may drive the gangs of plows rapidly and steadily, and thus reduce the great labor of hand plowing. It is not impossible that a solution of the difficulty may be found in the fireless locomotive. It is easily and safely managed, and has great traction power.

V. IRRIGATION.

It is not ten years since the opinion was boldly put forth by an eminent agricultural writer, that "however advantageous irrigation might be in Oriental countries, where labor was very low and it had long been practised, in this country, no farming lands which required irrigation to produce a crop were worth taking as a gift, if the recipient was obliged to cultivate them by this process." To-day large tracts in California, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, Wyoming, and Western Kansas, have their established systems of irrigation; while in other sections of what was formerly known as the Great American Desert, artesian wells are being bored to supply water for irrigation, to render these parched and thirsty lands veritable Edens in their bloom and beauty. It has been found that in all these States and Territories the lands requiring irrigation are, under its influence, so abundantly and exuberantly productive that the surplusage of the crops more than defrays the cost of irrigation in one, two, or three years.

Singularly enough, the most barren lands, the alkaline plains, which produced nothing but greasewood and sage-bush, under the revivifying influence of water became the most productive; and even those regions which seemed to have no soil except a sharp glittering sand will yield an abundant crop of grass or grain if they can only be fed by these tiny streamlets. At that not distant period (fifty or sixty years at the most), when our country shall have a population of 160 millions or more, and when all our available farming lands are taken up, irrigation will be conducted on a more extensive scale than we can now comprehend; every mountain torrent swelled by the melting of the snows, every lake and pond set like a gem in the depressions of the Sierras, and every small valley among the mountains which can be made to serve as a natural reservoir, will be made to treasure up its stores of the vivifying fluid, and even the now desert wastes of northern Arizona, condemned to a terrible drought by the sinking of the bed of the Colorado and its affluents, will again smile in their abundant verdure as when they furnished food and luxuries to the numerous inhabitants of the hundred cities whose colossal ruins are now strewn over its desolate plains, and those few sad-eyed dwellers in the eyries of its almost inaccessible cliffs shall find their lands no longer dreary and barren, nor their flocks perishing for want of water.

VI. FERTILIZERS AND MANURES.

These two terms are not synonymous; by *fertilizers* we mean artificial or natural salts, alkalies, etc., such as are sold by the dealers; by *manures*, the dung, muck, composts, etc., of the farm-yard. As the latter are of the first importance to the farmer, we should perhaps give them the first consideration. Japan has been subjected to very thorough cultivation, wherever the soil is tillable, for a period of not less than 2,500 years, and yet to-day it yields larger and better crops on the same lands than it did in the beginning, better even than it did two hundred years ago. And why? Because every Japanese farmer annually restores to the soil in manures a greater amount of the organic substances which make plant-food than he takes from it. His daily study is how to make his land richer and more productive. Some of his

methods of collecting fertilizing material may not comport with our tastes or ideas, but we can learn a valuable lesson from him in regard to using everything possible on our farms to increase the fertility and productiveness of the soil.

In this country the line of greatest productiveness of wheat and of Indian corn to the acre is moving westward with fearful rapidity; and it leaves behind it vast tracts of land which, though five or ten years ago they could roll up their crops of thirty, thirty-five, and even forty bushels of wheat to the acre, cannot now measure up more than ten or twelve. Why? Because wheat is an exhausting crop, taking certain constituents from the soil in large measure. Moreover, both the grain and straw are sold and removed from the farm, and the constituents which they have drawn from the soil are not returned to it in any way. The land is said to be very rich and fertile, and so it is for some crops, but not for wheat; the silica, potassa and soda, and other chemical principles appertaining to the soil and making it fit to yield great crops of wheat have all been drawn from it, and until these constituents are restored it will not yield large crops of wheat. We call the Japanese half-civilized, but in this matter of enriching the soil they are ahead of us, enlightened as we think ourselves.

We may then define this whole business of using fertilizing substances as "the attempt to restore to the soil the constituents it has lost, either by the sale of its crops to be consumed elsewhere, or by a merely superficial cultivation without manures.

Let us, then, first turn our attention to our home resources for increasing the fertility of our farms. The farmyard rightly constructed and thoroughly protected from the effects of washing rains; its liquid as well as its solid contents preserved, often turned over and incorporated with leaves, straw, refuse vegetation, muck, peat, marl, and even with fine clay; the night soil; the rich products of the pig-pen; the liquids from drains and cess-pools; the droppings of the poultry-yard and hen-house; the scrapings of the streets, especially in dairy or stock-growing regions; the enriching of the soil by the plowing in of green crops, especially of corn sowed as fodder, and of red clover; the gathering of compost heaps of leaves, rotten bark, and muck in the woods; these and other sources to be found on the farms and

gardens, if properly utilized, will restore to them more than their original fertility.

When these resources are all exhausted, and that other one of thorough and constant aëration of the soil by ploughing, spading, harrowing, clod-crushing and pulverizing, there remains the ample supply of commercial, natural, and artificial fertilizers.

The name of these is legion, and the special qualities claimed for each would fill a volume. While some of them are of great value in facilitating the growth and development of crops where there is a deficiency of the home fertilizers already named, no farmer who possesses a moderate-sized farm ought to need them, or would, if he farmed wisely and judiciously, diversifying his crops and saving all his fertilizing material. But with the strong temptation to confine his production to one, two, or three crops, and to sell these off from the farm, whether the crop be wheat, cotton, Indian corn, barley, hemp, flax, hops, or tobacco, there comes a demand for fertilizers beyond what the farm can supply. We do not believe this to be wise farming or economical farming, for the cost of the commercial fertilizers adds largely to the cost of the crop. Generally the substances taken from the soil by a repetition of the same crop are the phosphates of soda, potassa, lime, or calcium, carbonic acid and the carbonates, silicic acid and the silicates, nitrogen either free or in the form of ammonia, nitric acid or the nitrates, sulphuric acid in minute quantity, and a few of the sulphates. Minute quantities of other organic and inorganic materials, as well as of the plant-food assimilated from decayed vegetable growths, are always present; but of all these, ammonia and some of the ammoniacal compounds and of the several phosphates are the most important. These constituents must be thoroughly diffused through the soil, and for this purpose crushed or ground bone, bone-dust, strewn over the surface or harrowed in after plowing; the super-phosphates made by digesting crushed or broken bones in sulphuric or nitric acid, and applying the product, largely diluted, and in liquid form, to the soil; the fossil phosphates of South Carolina, ground or pulverized, and sown over the surface; the nitrate of ammonia, and in combination, nitrate of soda; the various natural and artificial guanos, beginning with the Peruvian, the Ichaboc, the Baker's Island, and the Alta Vila, the fish guano, now largely manufac-

tured on Long Island, Rhode Island, and elsewhere ; the refuse of the rendering works and abattoirs, of woollen-mills, of soap factories ; the lime from gas-works ; the various preparations of night-soil, and the fertilizers prepared from the bodies of dead animals, and from the refuse of tanning and currying establishments, are those most largely employed.

Another class of commercial fertilizers consists of ground plaster-of-Paris, sulphate of lime, air-slacked lime, marl, wood-ashes, leached ashes, crude and impure potash from salt-works, potteries, etc., nitrate of soda, and common salt.

But the farmer needs something more than a list of manures and fertilizers ; he must know how, when, and where to apply them. Commercial fertilizers should not, as a general rule, be applied by themselves. The Peruvian guano, and the fish guano, whether from Norway or our own coasts, while they are the best of the commercial fertilizers in supplying more nitrogen and as much of the phosphates as any other, are deficient to some extent in potash, and will be found greatly more efficient if mingled, in the quantity of about 200 pounds to the acre, with farm manure or compost, muck, and the like. These guanos restore to the soil the nitrogen and the phosphates of which previous crops sold away from home have robbed it, and with the combination of the farm-yard manure they supply all the constituents needed for a complete crop, and the fertilizing effect is felt for years. An admirable method of restoring poor and run-down lands to fertility is to use the guano freely, say 250 lbs. to the acre, sowing wheat and clover seed, and after the wheat or other grain is harvested, let the clover grow, and plow it in for manure. In this way poor lands may be restored to fertility, and by supplying the waste of the soil from crops made very productive. In other cases pondrette, guano, lime, plaster-of-Paris, wood-ashes, the waste lime from the gas-retorts, tanners, curriers, glue-factory and shoe-manufacturers' waste, may be mixed with muck, peat, green sand, marl, or spent tan-bark, with excellent results. The application of guano exclusively to lands for a series of years produces an excess of the constituents in the soil which it represents, and thus hinders their fertility, the lands becoming, as the English agriculturists say, *guano-sick*.

The farmer should study the characteristics of his soil thor-

oughly, and find out from the crops already raised upon it, from the predominance of sand or clay, of moisture or drought, from its exposure to sun or shade, the presence or absence of rocks, and the character of the subsoil, what description of manures will be best adapted to give it the highest fertility. Keen and careful observation of all that influences the productiveness of the farm is quite as necessary as book-knowledge on this subject.

There are undoubtedly considerable tracts in most of the States of the Mississippi Valley, as well as in California, which do not now, and probably will not for some years to come, require manure; but these lands must have thorough and very deep plowing or spading, going down certainly more than a foot, in order to bring up new soil, and so aërating the land through all its pores that it will have all the qualities of a virgin soil. If this is not done, the surface rapidly loses the constituents which enable it to grow large crops, and dwindles down to a low grade of production.

VII. GRAIN AND OTHER CROPS.

“What crop will pay best and cost the least labor?” Such is the inquiry of the novice in farming. The question does *not* admit of a direct and uniform answer, fortunately for the farmer and for the community, for if there was one crop which would in all situations and under all circumstances pay better than any other, that crop would be the one universally cultivated, and the market be glutted with that and bare of all others. A more appropriate inquiry, though still one which the farmer must answer for himself, would be: For what crops (for there should be a rotation) is my farm best adapted? The persistent cultivation of one crop to the exclusion or neglect of others is always unwise farming, whether that crop be grain, hay, cotton, Indian corn, potatoes, tobacco, hemp, rice, sugar, flax, or hops. It is unwise for the land, which loses with every year some of the constituents of its soil which are taken up by that crop, and which our utmost skill in manuring cannot perfectly restore; it is unwise, because the successive crops from the same land will, under the most skilful cultivation, inevitably diminish in quantity, slightly perhaps at first, but more considerably after a time. It

is unwise, also, because, in the event of a failure of that crop in any year from climatic or other causes, the farmers are left without the means of support. The great famines of India, and of Ireland and France, and the wide-spread disasters in several of the Southern States and in portions of Kansas, Iowa, and Minnesota, have arisen from this cause. So great has been the evil in the South, that at the session of the National Grange at St. Louis, in February, 1874, the representatives of the Cotton States in the Grange, under the able lead of Col. D. Wyatt Aiken, a member of the Executive Committee of the National Grange and a Past Master of the South Carolina State Grange, united in a memorial to the Cotton States, protesting against this practice of devoting the entire attention to a single crop as fraught with disaster to all their best interests. A rotation of crops on the same land, either of three, or five, or six years, will be found preferable, even if the largest crop of the year is of the kind which is the favorite, as new land may be brought into cultivation each year.

For wheat, and indeed for most of the cereals, a soil of which clay is the larger constituent, though with a considerable admixture of sand to furnish the silicious element of the straw, and in general a soil rich in the nitrogenous and phosphatic elements, is the best, and if there is a rotation of clover and root crops with the wheat or other cereal on such land every three years, the crop may be wheat without injury. But in lands where the sand largely predominates wheat cannot be raised to advantage, as the crop will be but moderate at best, and if its cultivation is attempted it should be with a five or six year rotation. We have not the space here to go into a description of the best varieties of wheat. There are some which are preferable to others, but between, perhaps, six or eight of the better varieties there is great difference of opinion as to their comparative value, and this is to some extent, doubtless, caused by the different qualities of soils. There are moreover two great varieties, almost differing species, of the wheat plant, the winter and spring wheat; and a further division of each, important both in a commercial and physiological view—that of the wheat containing a large amount of gluten, like the California and much of the Southern wheat, and that containing a small amount of gluten and a large amount of starch, like those of the northern belt of wheat-growing States. These

two varieties seem to be entirely distinct, possess a different commercial value, and furnish different kinds of flour, making articles of food which are applied to different purposes of nutrition.

Neither *rye* nor *barley* is very largely cultivated in the United States, though the production of the latter is increasing in California and in some of the Western States. Both do better than wheat on a soil in which sand predominates. *Oats*, which are largely produced, also do well on light lands.

Indian corn, the crop of which is by far the largest in quantity of the food-producing staples, requires for its profitable production a mellow and friable soil, yielding very large crops where the soil is rich and the climate not too cold nor the frosts too early, but rewarding the husbandman fairly on soil of moderate richness if properly prepared. It requires for its complete maturity a tolerably long season, not ripening thoroughly in the Northern States till October, though in the South, from earlier planting, it is ready for stacking in August or September. The old practice of hilling the corn is not now adopted by intelligent farmers, as the corn is found to endure drought better if the surface is level than if the corn is hilled. There are many varieties of the maize or Indian corn, differing materially in the size of the ears, the number of rows, character of the kernel, and the color of the corn. The pop-corn differs from the other varieties almost enough to be considered a new species, but is probably to be considered only as a sub-species. The brown-corn, sorgho, or sorghum, and imphee, are distinct species, though the two latter may be very nearly allied to each other.

Corn should be planted (except when sown for fodder) with a drill or corn-planter, and in preference by one of those implements which will sow the requisite number of kernels to the hill; put the fertilizer into the hill with it and cover and roll all at one operation.

Corn does best on sod land or clover land broken up the preceding autumn with a Michigan plow which turns the sod in, harrowed and replowed, and thoroughly pulverized; and in the East or South thoroughly manured with wood-ashes, lime, plaster-of-Paris, and guano or other manure put in each hill and covered before planting. In the West all these preparations are not necessary; but deep and repeated plowing and thorough pulveri-

zation of the soil is. The distance of the hills apart should vary with the kind of corn, but in no case should the space be too great, as the fertilization of the silk by the pollen is incomplete. The Tuscarora or "horse-teeth" corn, a large and common variety at the South, is planted in rows five or six feet apart, but this is too much, four or four and a half feet would be better; the Dutton, Ohio dent, improved King Philip, and Brown corn do not need more than three or three and a half feet space between the rows, and if they can be "cultivated" successfully a still narrower space is better. Pop-corn needs only two feet one way, and eighteen inches the other between the rows.

The yield of corn varies very greatly on different soils, and is largely influenced by the variety of corn, by manuring largely and skilfully, by close planting in drills, by careful selection of seed, and perhaps also by the preparation and soaking of the seed with a weak solution of saltpetre, sulphate of iron, sulphate of copper, or chloride of lime; tarring and dusting the seed with plaster is also recommended by some farmers, but is of doubtful utility. As galvanic action greatly promotes the growth of vegetation, it has been suggested that the use of sulphate of copper as a steep may possibly act galvanically when the seed is planted. It is certain that the corn is brought forward two or three weeks sooner by it. Various methods have been suggested to defend corn at its first germination from the wire-worms and from the crows and other pests of the corn-field. The wire-worm usually comes from old sod of worn-out pastures, and can be put out of the way by plowing deep and turning the sod so far under the soil that the worm cannot find its way to the surface. Some recommend the sowing of corn broadcast over the field, and, just as it starts, plowing over again and planting in drills. The worms and the birds will content themselves with the corn sown broadcast, and after filling in any missing hills of that sown in drills by transplantation, the remainder can be turned under by the cultivator or cultivating plow, and serves to enrich the soil. In the South, for many years from five to ten bushels per acre was an average crop; and in the West from fifteen to twenty-five bushels. Yet, if a little more pains is taken, fifty, sixty, eighty, and a hundred bushels can be grown to the acre, and twice this last quantity has been grown in some instances.

The corn should be suffered to ripen on the stalk unless when it is nearly ripe there is a sudden change of weather indicating a frost. In that case it may be cut up and shocked, and in the subsequent warm days it will ripen in the stock.

Corn is often sowed closely for fodder, and used either in soiling cattle or as an article of fodder in its dry state. It is greatly relished by stock, and in cows increases the quantity and improves the quality of their milk. The quantity of corn grown in the United States is enormous. The years 1870 and 1872 were years of full corn crops, and the production was in each year in round numbers eleven hundred million bushels. 1869, 1871, and 1873 were years of short crops, but even in those years the production ranged from 860 to 900 millions of bushels. The money value of the crop is seldom below \$375,000,000, and in some years has reached nearly \$500,000,000.

VIII. THE GRASSES, CLOVERS AND OTHER GREEN FOOD FOR STOCK.

"Make hay when the sun shines," says the old proverb; and truly the vast crops of hay and fodder indicate that somebody obeys the command very faithfully. From 27,000,000 to 30,000,000 tons of hay are produced annually, and of this nine-tenths is produced in the Northern, Western and North-western States. The Southern States have not so much occasion for it, as in most of them the cattle can graze throughout the winter; while California, although she cuts 550,000 tons of alfalfa, lucerne, wild oats, and wild rice, as substitutes for hay, has no perennial sod and consequently no true grass for hay. Corn, cotton, hay, and wheat are our four great agricultural staple crops; and if the value of the hay crop, much of which is fed upon the farm and never comes into market, can be estimated, it probably holds the second rank in its money value, taking one year with another.

The practice of selling the hay crop, and of raising it for sale, though sometimes necessary, is in general unwise farming. The principle with the farmer should be to return to the soil all, and if possible more than all of the inorganic constituents (and in a concentrated form the organic constituents also) which he takes from it. He *can* do this and sell off his hay, but as a general rule he *does* not. A liberal top-dressing of farm-yard manure, muck

alone or mixed with salt, plaster, or wood-ashes, gives very good results, but it will give much better if the manures from the consumption of the hay are returned to the soil than if an attempt is made to replace the lost constituents by the use of chemical or commercial fertilizers; in any case, this top-dressing should be very liberally applied.

Both pasture and meadow lands should be broken up and seeded down anew, as often as once in five or eight years. In this way their productiveness can be greatly increased.

As to the grasses best adapted for hay and pasture, there is a considerable difference of opinion. *Timothy* or *herds-grass* (*Phleum pratense*) is usually preferred by Northern and Western farmers, as yielding the largest amount of hay for its bulk when green, and the greatest quantity of nutriment to the ton, of any grass cultivated. Its seed commands the highest price of any of the grasses. The objections to it are that it is liable to run out in three or four years, that it produces little or no after-math or second crop, and that it is very often infested with insects which injure it and other grasses. It is not adapted to hot sandy soils, nor to gravelly or chalky lands, or hard and sterile clays; does best in peaty and damp soils, or on calcareous loams. Where the soil is adapted to it, any mixture of grasses for the best hay should contain from one-fourth to one-seventh of timothy.

Next in quality come the fescues, which are at home in most soils, and abound in the best butter and cheese districts. Of these the meadow fescue (*Festuca pratensis*) is the best, though the sheep fescue and the red fescue (*Festuca ovina* and *rubra*) are excellent on sandy or thin gravelly soils.

The rye-grass (*Solium perenne*) is the favorite grass of English pastures, sixty varieties of it being cultivated there. It does best in a damp climate. It occupies in England the same position that timothy does here. The Italian rye-grass (*Solium Italicum*) is also a good grass for pastures and for hay, and is especially well adapted to limestone lands and irrigated meadows.

The meadow or blue grasses, all belonging to the genus *Poa* (*Poa pratensis*, Kentucky blue grass, *Poa fertilis*, fertile meadow grass, and *Poa trivialis*, rough-stalked meadow grass), are among our best pasture grasses, and are greatly relished by cattle. The Kentucky blue grass does not produce so much hay as

some others, but it is very nutritious, and when the top dies there remains beneath a sweet and abundant pasturage, which lives through the winter. The meadow foxtail (*Alopecurus pratensis*) is a very valuable grass, a great favorite with sheep and cattle. The orchard grass (*Dactylis glomerata*), the two species of bent grass, the white-top and red-top (*Agrostis alba* and *vulgaris*), known also in the South as herds-grass or foul meadow, and the sweet-scented vernal grass (*Anthoxanthum odoratum*) are the other principal species of grass cultivated in the Atlantic slope and in the valleys of the Mississippi and Missouri. The *Zizania Aquatica*, or wild rice, which is much used as a substitute for hay in the South and in California, is rather a rice than a grass. It grows tall, yields five or six tons to the acre in favorable situations, and is very nutritious.

Clover.—This is not properly speaking a grass, but a forage plant. There are none of the grasses, however, so valuable to the farmer as the red clover. It has a three-fold mission: as a manure plowed in when nearly ready for blossoming it performs the duty of yielding an immense amount of organic matter to enrich the soil, while its extending roots and its stiff stems keep the soil porous and hasten the processes of decay and fertilization; as food for cattle it is greatly relished, increasing the flow of milk in milch cows, and fattening other stock; when suffered to ripen its seed, that is a product of great value, always commanding a high price.

There are two varieties of red clover, the large and the small. The former is preferred for plowing in, but the latter is best for hay and for seed. The white clover is not cultivated for hay, but is excellent for pasturage, and its sweet blossoms furnish the bees with abundant honey.

The other forage plants deserve a brief notice. *Lucerne* (*Medicago sativa*) belongs to the clover family, as does also the *Medicago lupulina*, which is more cultivated in Europe than here. It succeeds best on limestone lands, but requires a great depth of penetrable earth, as its roots strike downward to a depth of 14 feet. It does not reach perfection under about three years, and then, if not injuriously affected by weeds, will last from 25 to 30 years. It is much used in England, and to some extent in this country, for soiling cattle and horses. It can be cut during the

summer months, every thirty days, beginning in the latitude of New York City about the first of May. Chancellor Livingston cut 25 tons from an acre in five mowings. The hay from it contains about $\frac{3}{5}$ of the nutritive power of timothy.

Alfalfa, or Peruvian clover, introduced from South America into California, belongs to the same family with lucerne, and like that plant, its roots penetrate so deeply that it is not affected by the drought. It can be cut several times in the season, and yields a rich and nutritious hay, the more prized in California as the ordinary grasses burn off during the long dry season, and in much of the country there is no grass sod.

The birdsfoot trefoil (*Lotus corniculatus*), the spurry (*Spergula arvensis*), the vetch or tare (*Vicia sativa*), and the white lupine are other forage plants of considerable merit. The *Hungarian grass*, a species of millet about which there has been a great deal of humbug, is really a very excellent forage plant if cut before its seeds are ripe. The barn grass, which belongs to the same family, is also regarded as possessing considerable claims as a forage plant, though hardly so good as corn fodder.

How much of the different kinds of grass seed should be sown per acre, and is it best to mix the different kinds in sowing?

The answer to both questions depends in a considerable degree upon the locality, climate, and soil, and to some extent, also, on the purpose for which the grass is to be grown. For ornamental purposes, as for a lawn, or the grass portion of a park, the soft meadow grass, fescue meadow grass, the Kentucky blue grass, with a small admixture of white clover, red-top, and orchard grass, are best, and the whole quantity should be not far from 33 pounds to the acre, of which the white clover should not be more than three pounds, and the other grasses about six pounds each. For permanent pasture in rocky lands, a good proportion is meadow foxtail, two pounds; orchard grass, six pounds; white clover, five pounds; red clover, rye grass, timothy, Kentucky blue grass, meadow fescue, red-top, and rough-stalked meadow grass, of each four pounds. This would be very heavy seeding on a rich, fine soil, but is not too much for the hilly New England and New York pastures.

For *mowing in rotation*, orchard grass, six pounds; red clover,

ten pounds; rye grass, five pounds; red-top, four pounds; and rough-stalked meadow grass, four pounds.

For *hay solely*, the timothy should be the principal seed if the best grade of hay is wanted, though enough orchard grass, rye grass, meadow fescue; blue grass or vernal grass may be sown to make the sod more compact and prevent the timothy from running out. In such cases about 12 or 14 pounds of timothy should be sown, and if all the others are intermixed, not over two and a half or three pounds of each.

It often happens that the farmer wants a crop almost exclusively of clover; this should be sown in quantities of not more than ten or at the utmost twelve pounds to the acre, and unless it is to be plowed in either before or after the first cutting, it will be well to mix with the seed Kentucky blue grass, orchard grass, rye grass, or red-top, in quantities of from two to three pounds each. For plowing in, ten pounds of clover seed to the acre is usually sufficient.

For marshy and peaty lands which have been reclaimed, it is well to follow nature's plan, and have ten or twelve species of grass mixed (the best natural meadows often have from 15 to 20). Yet in these timothy should usually predominate. The Massachusetts Board of Agriculture recommend in such lands, white-top, red-top, and meadow foxtail, each two pounds; white clover, Kentucky blue grass, and Italian rye grass, each four pounds; red canary grass, and rough-stalked meadow grass, each three pounds; perennial rye grass, five pounds; and timothy, ten pounds.

The yield of hay to the acre has a wide range, some grasses yielding much more than others, and the soil and manure making an astounding difference. Of lucerne, which can be cut every thirty days during the summer months, and sometimes for five successive months, 25 tons per acre of cured hay have been made in five cuttings. Of clover, under extraordinary circumstances of very rich lands, frequent irrigation with liquid manures, etc., from 18 to 20 tons to the acre have been cut in three mowings; ordinarily, however, from three and a half to six tons is accounted a great crop of clover. Timothy has yielded, under exceptional conditions, six tons to the acre, but three and a half to four tons is a large crop, though not an infrequent one. When, as

is often the case, this hay is held at \$20 the ton, there are few crops which, for the amount of labor bestowed on them, pay better. There are very many meadows in all parts of the country which are mown annually, but do not yield a single ton of hay to the acre, and the little which they do yield is of very poor quality. Such farming tends only to poverty. We have ourselves seen, even in sections of the country devoted to stock-growing and dairy farming, large tracts of land which by draining, thorough breaking up, pulverizing, and the use of liquid manures, could have been made easily to yield four tons of timothy, or five or six of clover to the acre, as lands immediately adjacent were doing, but by slovenly farming it was so overgrown with plantains, docks, and daisies, that the grass which was fit for hay had to struggle up through these pests of the hay-field, and when the fields were mowed, the product was unmarketable—neither fit to feed nor to give away. This leads us to say that the farmer should carefully guard against the spreading of noxious and troublesome weeds on his meadow-lands. Dock, burdock, daisies, dandelions, plantains, wild parsley, wild or cow parsnips, purslane, usually called “pusley,” Bouncing Bet, Ragged Lady, Jacob’s Ladder, and generally all the snap-dragon tribe, the whole family of thistles, the *ranunculaceæ*, and especially the common buttercup, the crowfoot geranium, a beautiful flower, but a great pest on prairie lands, the golden-rods, asters, lobelias, and the rest, should be eradicated without mercy, and never suffered to go to seed. An English farmer invented an implement to destroy weeds, which, cutting into their roots, would eject a caustic fluid which would destroy them. He called it very appropriately the “Scorpion spud.” If the whole root of the weed cannot be brought up, be sure to lay open the crown of it, so that water will stand in it and rot it. Make it a law of the farm, that, on the mowing lands at least, every one shall daily, through the summer, pull up more or less of these vile pests, and if necessary supply the patches thus laid bare with good clean grass seed; but at any rate pull out the weeds.

IX. ROOT CROPS.

Of these we name first the potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) and the sweet-potato (*Batatas edulis*) as furnishing probably a larger pro-

portion of human food than any other product, vegetable or animal. What the inhabitants of Europe subsisted on before the introduction of the potato, the sweet-potato, and Indian corn, passes our comprehension. What a single nation were brought to in the failure of their crop of but one of the three in Ireland, was made painfully manifest by the potato famine of 1846-7. The potato is a native of the slopes of the Andes, though a kindred species, if not the same, has been found growing wild in the mountains of Mexico and in our own Sierra Nevada. It is universally cultivated, and yields an annual crop in the United States ranging from 143 to 175 million bushels, an average of more than four bushels to every inhabitant. Of late years it has been very subject to disease of a fungoid character, called the potato rot, probably caused by an insect, and this disease, though materially checked at times by the introduction of new seedlings, is almost constantly recurring and seems ineradicable. This evil has led to more care and more attempts to improve the character of the crop than almost any other of our larger crops. Within a few years past many new seedling potatoes have been introduced, some of them of great merit. Many of the older varieties are so much affected by the rot that they are going out of cultivation. Of the new kinds several of the Goodrich seedlings have a good reputation; and the Chili red, also one of the Goodrich varieties, is perhaps the best of the dark-skinned potatoes. The Early Rose is one of the best of our new potatoes, being white-meated, of fair size, yielding abundantly, and not very subject to the rot. In quality it is perhaps surpassed by two or three, especially by the Carter, the State of Maine, and many think the White Peach Blow, but it yields a very much larger crop to the acre, and is a little earlier than either of those we have named, so that for market purposes it may perhaps be reckoned the best. The Harrison, another new potato, has a very fair reputation, but is not, we believe, quite as prolific as the Early Rose. The Dikeman is a very good potato, but degenerates somewhat too soon. Of the older potatoes, the Jackson Whites, the Prince Alberts, the Woods or Jenny Linds, the Buckeyes, Red Peach Blows, Davis Seedling, the Mercers or Meshannocks, now nearly run out from the rot, the Black Mercers, Dovers, the Sand Lakes, California English Whites, and Pink Eyes, are those most widely known. For eat-

ing there are no better potatoes than the State of Maine, Carters, and White Peach Blows, but they are not so prolific as some of the other varieties, and the first two are only occasionally found in the market.

The size and quantity of seed has been long a matter of dispute ; but the preponderating testimony seems to be in favor of medium-sized whole potatoes, one or two in a hill, dropped in furrows three inches deep, and covered with loose earth, well beaten down. Potato fields should be plowed deeply, twelve inches at least, and best with a Michigan plow, and if this was followed by a subsoil plow in the furrow running twelve inches more, it would be all the better. A dry mellow loam makes the best potato soil, and should be well manured with compost, salt, lime, or guano, never with unfermented stable manure. If the soil is rich enough without manuring, it is better not to manure, as when such land is plowed deeply, and thoroughly pulverized, there will be less liability to the rot in the crop. Twenty bushels of salt, or fifty bushels of lime per acre is not too much, and if this is followed by a handful of plaster upon each hill, the yield will be enormous. Potatoes should be planted and cultivated on the level system. Sandy or gravelly lands, well manured, will yield great crops of potatoes, and generally those of the best quality. The Long Island potatoes, those raised along the north shore of Long Island Sound, and those on the coast of Maine, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, and on the sandy shores of Lake Ontario, are accounted the best in the market. Many years ago, along the Sound shore, it was the custom to drag upon the sandy lands along the beach large quantities of sea-weed, and to mingle with it from five to ten loads per acre of the menhaden or alewives. This manuring would last from five to ten years. The odor was not pleasant at first, but after the first season it was not troublesome ; and these sandy lands, often composed in part of drifting sands, would yield from three hundred to four hundred bushels of potatoes to the acre. Now the menhaden are caught and crushed and pressed for their oil in extensive factories on both sides of the Sound, and the refuse after the pressing is sold as fish guano. It is less odoriferous, but less permanent as a manure. In New Jersey the marl is extensively used as a manure for potatoes, and sea-weed and sea-weed-ashes also. In Dela-

ware and Maryland, as well as in Western New York and Michigan, lime, salt, or plaster are the manures most in use. Wood-ashes are also used to some extent with advantage. It is best to plant deep—three to six inches—as the yield is better, and there is less liability to rot.

The SWEET-POTATO (*Batatas edulis*) is a running or climbing plant of the kindred genus and allied species to our common Morning-Glory (*Convolvulus ipomœa*), as well as to several other species possessing medicinal virtues. The tubers of this species of *Convolvulus* are very valuable for food purposes, and there are about twenty-three millions of bushels grown annually. Till within the last twenty or twenty-five years sweet-potatoes were grown only in the Southern States, except small quantities from Bermuda and the Bahamas, and were universally known as Carolina potatoes, but their production has gradually crept northward, till now the Northern markets are largely supplied from Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, Eastern Pennsylvania, and considerable quantities are grown on Long Island, and in most of the New England States.

The quality of the Northern grown potatoes is not, however, equal to that of those from the Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida. They are as large, and perhaps as mealy, but they lack the luscious sweetness of the Southern tubers. The Nansemond, a Virginia variety, is the best for cultivation in the Northern States. For their successful growth in those States they require to be started in a manure hot-bed from the first to the twenty-fifth of April, and transplanted from the fifteenth of May to the first of June. The seed potatoes are laid on the manure-bed (first covering it with two inches of light soil) so close as just to touch each other, and then covered with four inches of light loam. The sprouts are set two or three to a hill, and the hills about fifteen inches apart in the ridge, in rich, deeply plowed, and well pulverized soil. They are usually hoed or cultivated much like the common potato. They should be harvested in early autumn before frosts, and can usually be gathered easily by first throwing up the earth with a Michigan plow, and then hauling out with flat-fingered spading forks. It is difficult to keep them over winter in the Northern States, though by stirring them in fine straw they usually keep well in the South.

The *Dioscorea batatas*, or Chinese Yam, and the *Nelumbium luteum*, or yellow nut-bearing Water-Lily, yield large quantities of edible tubers, both of which have been proposed as substitutes for the potato, and cultivated to some extent, but have never become popular.

Of the other root crops the turnip, ruta-baga, marigold, Swedish turnip, carrot, parsnip, and onion, are the most profitable and valuable. For feeding to stock the turnip, ruta-baga, marigold, Swedish turnip, and carrot are indispensable; and the turnip, carrot, parsnip, and onion are of great value for the table. For money-making there are no crops more profitable than the root crops. Onions require the most care, labor, and expenditure in cultivation, but they also yield the largest profit, over \$400 per acre being not an uncommon return. Turnips, carrots, and parsnips yield a profit of from \$85 to \$175 per acre, with much less labor. The Jerusalem Artichoke (*Helianthus tuberosus*) is considerably cultivated at the South, both for the table and for stock, and merits more attention than it has received.

X. COTTON AND OTHER FIBROUS CROPS.

Cotton ranks either second or third among the four great crops of the United States, viz.: Hay, Corn, Cotton, and Wheat. In the years of the great production it probably surpasses corn, and ordinarily it approaches it very nearly. It differs from the other three in being almost entirely exported from the place of its growth; though strenuous efforts are now making to manufacture it into yarns, cloths, and battings in the immediate vicinity of the cotton-fields. Were this accomplished to a large extent, all parties would be greatly benefited; the planter, in having a good home market for his cotton at a fair price, and for his corn and other food products also; the manufacturer, in being saved a large amount of costly transportation, and in being able to select the best quality without danger of fraud; the working population, in finding ready and profitable employment at once; and the purchaser of cotton-goods, in being able to obtain them at a lower price.

Cotton was introduced into the Colonies from Barbadoes, where one or two species are supposed to have been native, about 1664. For about a hundred and twenty years the only kind cultivated or

known was the black seed, long staple cotton known as Sea Island (*Gossypium herbaceum*). This was cultivated on the islands along the coast of South Carolina and on the low shores of the mainland. Two hundred pounds to the acre was a large crop, one hundred to one hundred and fifty a more frequent one. The green seed, short staple, or upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*), a different species and requiring different circumstances of culture, was introduced into Georgia from the West Indies about 1785. It was not extensively cultivated until the invention of the cotton-gin by Eli Whitney in 1792. There have been numerous improvements on the cotton-gin since that time, and the best gins will now clean and pack for baling about three bales a day.

Sea Island cotton is sown the last of March, the plants being in drills about five feet apart, and the stalks from eight inches to two feet apart. The method of planting and cultivation is quite primitive, the trash or stalks, etc., and the manure being put in the hollows between the rows of the former year and then the dirt from the old rows dug up with hoes and hauled, one-half to each new row, as a bed for the new crop. It receives but little cultivation or hoeing while growing, but the picking, assorting, drying, stowing, trashing, sunning, ginning and packing, are all very carefully done, and require much time and labor. The ginning of this cotton is done with wooden rollers operated by a treadle, and the rollers changed every day. Great care is taken not to get any of the seeds between the rollers, as if crushed they stain the cotton. Twenty-five pounds a day is the usual task for a stout man with the gin. The packing is done in round bales of 300 pounds, and a packer's task is to finish one bale a day.

The upland cotton is the great cotton crop, only a few thousand bales of Sea Island being raised; while the upland is grown in North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, and to a moderate extent in Kentucky, Missouri, Southern Indiana, and Illinois, Virginia, West Virginia, Kansas, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, and Nevada. It is a tender plant, as easily killed by the frost as the tomato. It has other enemies than the frost—the boll-worm, and the cotton-louse, as well as the cut-worm, which attacks the young plants, and the floods, which sometimes, as the present year, drown out

the young cotton in the northern portions of the great cotton-field in Tennessee, Kentucky, etc. It somewhat resembles buckwheat (though a much darker leaf) in its mode of growth; but farther south, in the Gulf States, it becomes a woody shrub, tall and firm enough for walking-sticks. In South America and in Africa it is a tree. The ground for it must be thoroughly pulverized, and should be plowed deeply. The general custom at the South is to throw up the soil in beds, and thus give room for the tap-root to strike downwards, and allow the surplus water to run off in the hollows. The plant is very delicate at first, and must be sown thickly by hand in the drills, to allow for the numerous failures. When properly thinned out, they should be about two feet between stalks in rows four and a half feet apart. The seed is sown in the Gulf States about the first of April and comes up in about nine days. It should not be covered over an inch and a half in depth. It must be hoed and cultivated repeatedly and carefully to keep down the weeds, and plowed with a turning plow to throw up the earth on the beds, so as to leave deep water channels between the rows. The land requires to be well manured (for cotton is an exhausting crop, though not more so than flax), and the Southern planters are now using commercial manures largely. The yield of cotton per acre in favorable seasons ought to be much larger than it is, but there is often too little manure used, and the crop is cultivated in a slovenly way. The average yield is not much over 150 to 200 pounds of ginned cotton to the acre, or as generally stated, half a bale to the acre; but the best cotton planters will average on large tracts 300 to 400 pounds, or a bale to the acre, and raise a fine crop of corn and from 50 to 200 hogs. The temptation is strong, in years when cotton brings a good price, to devote almost the entire land to it, but this is unwise farming, and should be avoided.

Neither *Hemp* nor *Flax* are very prominent crops in the United States, both having fallen off largely in the last twenty years. Of the former about 12,000 or 13,000 tons of prepared lint are grown annually, and of the latter about 14,000 tons. Hemp is grown principally in Kentucky, Missouri, and Tennessee, moderately in Pennsylvania and California, and in very small quantities in several other States. A variety called Chinese hemp has been introduced within a few years, which, though of coarser

and harsher fibre, yields nearly double the ordinary hemp and does well on poorer lands. For hemp-growing, the ground should be deeply and thoroughly plowed, and, if practicable, re-plowed, and well harrowed. About five pecks of seed should be sown to the acre. The soil should be rich. The growth of hemp is rank and exhausting to the soil, and heavy manuring must be resorted to to supply the waste, except, perhaps—and we doubt even if that is an exception—the rich blue grass region in Central Kentucky, and the bottom lands of Eastern Missouri, where the crumbling blue limestone furnishes to the soil the inorganic salts so largely abstracted by the hemp. This process will go on for quite a series of years, but eventually those fertile lands must become exhausted without manures. In some sections, even on fair lands, 700 pounds of good merchantable lint is reckoned a fair average crop per acre; but in Central Kentucky and Eastern Missouri, from 1,000 to 1,400 pounds, and of the Chinese hemp 1,700 pounds, is the average crop. As hemp is worth from \$90 to \$100 per ton, and the work of producing the crop except the breaking is not very severe, this pays a very fair profit, and the competition of foreign hemp, jute, sisal and Manila-hemp is not increasing in this country.

Flax is a most exhausting crop, requiring a moist soil highly and constantly enriched, and only doing well in a wet season, or a locality where it can be often irrigated. It is one of the oldest of cultivated crops, and grows in all climates where it can have sufficient moisture. It is grown for both the seed and the lint, the seed being of value for a variety of purposes, but principally for the production of linseed oil, and the oil-cake valuable for feeding to stock. If sown for the seed alone, from a peck to half a bushel of seed to the acre is sufficient, better than a larger amount. It should be sown in drills. From a field sown for this purpose, on wet and well-prepared ground, a crop of from fifteen to twenty-five bushels of seed may be harvested, worth from one dollar to one dollar and fifty cents per bushel at the farm, and the rough straw sold for paper stock at five to six dollars per ton.

When it is sown for the lint only it must be sown much thicker, as it should grow close and dense, and the denser its growth the finer the lint. Two bushels of seed per acre is the smallest quantity that should be used, and for the very finest lint

as high as seven bushels have been sown, and the flax pulled when in blossom. It should be sown as early as the ground can be properly prepared. A light frost will not injure the young plants. In the latitude of Central New York it can be sown usually from the 10th to the 20th April; further south an earlier date is better. The crop is generally harvested in about three months for lint or four months for the seed. When it is raised for both lint and seed, as in most of the Eastern States, it requires about four months to mature, and about two bushels of seed to the acre. The flax-breaking machines invented within a few years past have led to a considerable increase in the crop, as they have greatly diminished the labor of dressing it.

Among other textile fibres used either for clothing fabrics or for furnishing fibrous pulp to the paper-makers, and which are cultivated or collected in considerable quantities, we may notice the *Ramie plant* or *grass*, which produces a beautiful silky fibre of great excellence, and which, now that the difficulty of preparing it for the market has been surmounted by the invention of the Ramie machine, is likely to form a valuable addition to our stock of textile fibres; the *jute*—transplanted into some of the Southern States, and now cultivated to a constantly increasing extent there—a plant whose uses are numerous: for gunny-bags, for cordage, for the adulteration of silk, for the paper-makers, for some of the so-called grass-cloth fabrics, and for artificial hair; the *okra*, which yields a fibre very valuable for paper-makers and for light cordage; the *sisal grass* and the *agave*, both yielding a strong and valuable fibre; and for the sand-hills and dunes of the Southern coast the *Esparto grass*, a valuable material for the paper-makers; the *tulé*, found on the islands, bottom-lands, and lake-shores in California, and well adapted to the same purpose; the great *mallow* of the New Jersey swamps and barrens; the *asclepias milkweed* or *silkweed*; the *brake* or *bamboo-like cane* of North Carolina swamps, and a *reed* or *rush* found on the bottom-lands of the Mississippi and some of its tributaries in Iowa and Wisconsin. All these furnish stock for the paper-makers, and as the great increase in the demand for paper has caused rags to become scarce, and cotton-waste is both high and in demand for other purposes, the addition of these new textile

fibres to the supply of the manufacturers is both necessary and judicious.

XI. OTHER SPECIAL CROPS.

1. RICE.—The crop of this valuable grain, which had reached about 213,000 tierces of 600 lbs. each, before the war, fell off heavily for several years, and has not yet fully regained its former dimensions. The crop of 1869–70 was 122,725 tierces, and there has been some increase since. The great bulk of the crop is grown in South Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, yet North Carolina yields about 4,000 tierces annually, and Florida about 1,000, while smaller quantities are grown in Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, Arkansas, and Tennessee. The plant will thrive, especially the upland variety, as far north as latitude 40°.

Rice is a somewhat difficult crop to cultivate, and is liable, especially when cultivated on overflowed lands, to several accidents, but it is on the average a profitable crop. The greater part of what is known as “Carolina rice” is grown on the lowlands, and is irrigated either by the tide where the water is not salt, or by water from reservoirs constructed for the purpose. The lands selected are usually those which will not grow any other crop to good advantage, and where they are subject to overflow, do not require manure, as the deposits from the flood are sufficient to enrich them. The lands are often prepared for the crop with great labor and expense. The flooding is carefully arranged so as to facilitate the sprouting of the seed, and is then shut off till the second weeding, or if let on sooner it is kept at just the point which will enable the plants to keep their heads out of water, and this is sufficient usually to kill all the weeds. For this purpose a levee is necessary, but if there is a crevasse, or if there is drought and the fresh water is low, or there are high salt-water tides, the crop is ruined. The yield of lowland rice ranges from 50 to 90 bushels, of 40 pounds each, to the acre; of the upland rice, which is less difficult to raise, about 60 bushels. When threshed out the rice is covered with a flinty, brown covering, which is removed with difficulty, and is called *paddy*. This coating is removed by a hulling-mill, which grinds and rubs the surface, and the loose hulls are then fanned out. Various processes have to be passed through before the grains assume the

brilliant white appearance of the rice as it is put upon the markets, and it is classified as "whole or sound rice," "broken rice," and "rice meal." Carolina rice is of better quality, and commands a higher price, than the India or China rice. It is usually worth, at wholesale, from six to eight cents per pound, some years more. At these prices an acre of rice well cultivated will yield from \$150 to \$210 net.

2. SUGAR FROM THE CANE.—The true sugar-cane (*Arundo saccharifera*) is not a native of any portion of the United States, and cannot be successfully cultivated from the seed, but is propagated by cuttings or layers; and these, after a few years, so degenerate or run out that the planters are obliged to import new layers from some country where the cane is native or naturalized. It is a crop which can be raised only in a very limited region, embracing a portion of Louisiana, and parts of Texas, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida, with possibly some production of cane-molasses in Arkansas, Georgia, and South Carolina. More than nine-tenths of the entire crop is produced in Louisiana, and even in that State it is a losing crop at least one year out of three. The processes of culture and of sugar-making require a special treatise for any practical purpose, and we must therefore refer our readers who need them to the special treatises on the subject, of which there are a number.

3. SORGHUM SUGAR AND MOLASSES OR SYRUP.—At one time there was a very general belief, founded rather upon hope than actual experience, that the sorghum would supply us with all the sugar and syrup we needed, and prevent the necessity of our paying tribute to foreign countries for the sugar and molasses we needed. That hope and belief are not destined to be realized. The sorghum is a valuable addition to our agricultural resources; it makes excellent fodder for cattle; yields a tolerable molasses, and when properly refined a very fair syrup; but the production of crystallized sugar from it, though possible, is too uncertain, except with costly and extensive apparatus, to be worth the trouble. Still the sorghum yields an equal, and perhaps generally a better profit to the cultivator than Indian corn, while the cost of production is about the same. The value of the leaves for fodder and, according to some experimenters, of the *bagasse* or stalks after the juice is expressed, for the same purpose, materially

diminishes the cost of production of the syrup. Under favorable circumstances an acre of the sorghum will yield about 1,500 gallons of juice, and this quantity will produce nearly, perhaps quite, 300 gallons of syrup, which, when properly clarified and refined, is worth from thirty to fifty cents per gallon. There is to be taken into the account, however, the risk of a lack of saccharine matter in the stalks, as it is difficult, and some say impossible, to distinguish the sweet sorghum from that which has no sugar in its juice, either by the seed or the appearance of the plant. There is, farther, the danger of the souring of the juice in the stalk, of the scorching of it in the pans, and of the admission of an unpleasant taste from the unripeness of a part of the stalks. Much of the syrup made during the war was unpalatable from this cause. In 1869-70, the year of the census, there were only 24,000 lbs. of sorghum sugar reported, but 16,050,089 gallons of the molasses or syrup, or about two and a half times as much as of the sugar-cane molasses.

4. SUGAR FROM THE SUGAR BEET.—A very large portion of the sugar consumed on the continent of Europe, and especially in France and Germany, is made from the Silesian or Sugar Beet. Repeated efforts have been made to introduce beet culture and the manufacture of sugar from it into this country. For several years these attempts were unsuccessful, from one cause or another. The largest of these enterprises was at Chatsworth, Illinois, where the cultivation of the beet was attempted on a large scale, and extensive and costly apparatus set up for the manufacture. It was found that the beets absorbed certain chemical salts from the soil (principally magnesian salts, we believe), which could not be eliminated so as to make a good sugar. The establishment was removed to Wisconsin, where there was a moderate degree of success. But the best results in this manufacture have been obtained in California, where beet sugar bids fair to become a fixed and profitable staple.

5. The manufacture of sugar from the *Sap of the Sugar Maple*, though conducted mainly by farmers, and producing in 1870 about one-third as much sugar as was made from the cane, and about one-seventh as much syrup or molasses, seems hardly to be an agricultural business. The sugar is rather a product of the forest than of the earth. Vermont is the largest producer of

maple sugar, New York second, and Ohio third ; but it is produced in twenty-eight States and Territories, and in quantities of over 10,000 pounds in twenty-one of the States. Ohio and Indiana are the largest producers of maple syrup, more than two-thirds of the whole being produced in these two States. The processes of manufacture are perfectly familiar to all who are engaged in it, and will possess comparatively little interest to others.

The attempt has been made to produce sugar and syrup from other substances, such as the water-melon, the sap of the sugar pine (in California), grape juice, the sap of the stalks of the sweet or sugar corn, etc., etc., but these articles, though they make a very good syrup, have seldom crystallized well, and most of them seem to possess rather the *glucose* or grape-sugar than the crystallizable form. Sugar not crystallizable and of inferior saccharine properties (unquestionably *glucose*) has also been produced from Indian corn, from starch, and from starch-producing vegetables and fruits by treatment with sulphuric acid ; but it is hardly probable that we shall procure our supply of sugar from any of these sources.

6. TOBACCO.—Tobacco was grown in 1869–70 in every State of the Union and in the Territories except Dakota, District of Columbia, Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming. It is probably now grown in all of these. It is, however, a very peculiar crop, and the varieties grown in different sections are used for different purposes. As grown in the Northern States—and of these only Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin raise any considerable quantity, the whole aggregate of these States being a little more than fifty-six million pounds—tobacco is grown almost exclusively for cigars, the color and structure of the leaf adapting it to that purpose. That grown in the Southern and Southwestern States and in California is a much stronger tobacco, and while some of it vies with the Cuban tobacco in flavor and color, and is used for the higher grades of cigars, the greater part is made up into plug, Cavendish, and fine-cut tobacco and the better grades of snuff. The whole crop of 1869–70 was reported at 262,735,341 pounds, probably an understatement, as some States in which the culture prevails returned but a few pounds. Of this grand total Kentucky pro-

duced 105,305,869 pounds, or two-fifths of the whole, nearly double the product of the entire Northern States. Virginia (37,086,364 pounds), Tennessee (21,465,452 pounds), Maryland (15,785,339 pounds), Missouri (12,320,483 pounds), North Carolina (11,150,087 pounds), and West Virginia (2,046,452 pounds), were the States which produced the great bulk of this crop. The culture of tobacco is a specialty, not to be fully communicated in any book, and requiring for even a general description of its processes more room than we can properly devote to it here, while an imperfect account of it would be utterly valueless. We must therefore refer our readers to the premium essay on Tobacco Culture published eight or ten years ago; to the able article on Tobacco in Appleton's ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1867, p. 721, and to Mr. Charles Nordhoff's account of tobacco raising and curing in California in his recently published "Northern California." All these works are or ought to be in every Grange library. No crop grown requires more constant and abundant manuring, and none more speedily exhausts the soil of certain important elements, which must be repaired or it is rendered permanently barren.

7. Hops.—This is the only other special crop of which we have room to speak. It is raised in quantities exceeding 1,000 pounds in twenty-three States of the Union, and the total production of 1869–70 was 25,456,669 pounds, of which a small district of four or five counties in Central New York produced more than two-thirds, and a similar tract in Wisconsin nearly one-fifth. The remainder were mostly grown in Michigan, California, Vermont, Maine, New Hampshire, Minnesota, Iowa, Illinois, and Ohio. The hop has its enemies, the hop aphid or louse, the hop-worm, the blight or mildew, and the smut or rust. It requires a very rich soil, and the cost of the "plant," or investment for a hop-yard, is very heavy. Including the drying kiln it is from \$600 to \$1,000 per acre, and usually a yard of ten or fifteen acres is all a man can profitably cultivate. The crop is profitable except when there is a failure from one or other of the causes we have enumerated. The hop requires very close attention; on the rich soil weeds are very abundant, and must be kept down by frequent hoeing or cultivating. Great efforts have been made to obtain a prolific early variety, as the vines are liable to injury from early

frosts ; the time of picking, drying, and curing the hop is a season of great activity and hurry, as the season's toil may be sacrificed sometimes by a single day's delay. The picking is done mostly by women and children, and in this country as in England great numbers flock to the hop-yards for employment. The cost of hop-poles is a very serious item, and with a view to saving this, some hop-growers plant them around posts, and have strings or wires leading to a central pole for them to run on ; others train them, as grape-vines are sometimes trained, on a low, cheap, but fine trellis. They are picked more easily from the poles, these being taken down at picking time, and stacked after being stripped. The vines after picking are burned, and the ashes strewed over the soil. Usually a hop-yard has to be broken up every fifth or sixth year in consequence of its becoming so overrun with weeds. A new yard is set out before the old one is given up, and does not come into full bearing before the second or third year. The hop is propagated not from the seed, nor from plants whose growth has been hastened by hot-beds, but from "sets," or "offshoots," clusters of roots thrown off from the main root each year, much as they are from the lily, the *Spiræa* or the *Dielytra* in our gardens. These are carefully preserved and furnish roots for new hop-yards to almost any extent. The efforts of the late Mr. Palmer, of Waterville, N. Y., and other eminent hop-growers, to raise a new variety from seedlings was so far successful that the season of hop-picking has been brought in many of the yards at least two weeks earlier, a matter of great importance, as if the picking can be completed before the fifth of September, there is no danger from frost.

XII. STOCK FARMING.

The operations of the farm, whatever may be the crops cultivated, require some live stock. There must be horses, mules or asses, or oxen, for purposes of draught ; usually one or more cows where the farm is not a dairy farm—a larger number if it is ; hogs in greater or less numbers to fatten on the refuse of the house and the corn, etc., of the farm ; sheep, if the character of the farm and the absence of wolfish and destructive dogs will permit, and the farmer is wise ; fowls of various kinds, according

to the location of the farm, and the tastes of its occupants ; and often some fancy stock, goats, rabbits, pigeons, guinea-pigs, etc., etc.

All these require care and knowledge on the part of the farmer, of their peculiarities, their diseases, and their capacity for increasing in value and profit. But it is not of these ordinary accessories of the farm we are now to speak ; but of the farms which are devoted to the breeding, rearing, feeding, and shipping to the distant markets the different domestic animals known under the general name of live stock.

1. We begin with the HORSE and his congener the ASS.

The number of horses in the United States in 1870, as reported in the census, was 8,690,219, and of asses and mules, 1,125,415. As a general rule, they are not bred on a large scale, though in Kentucky and Tennessee, and to some extent in Pennsylvania, New York, Vermont, and Canada, there are farms devoted exclusively to the breeding of horses, and in the two first-named States there are also farmers who make the rearing of mules a specialty. In most cases a man obtains possession by purchase or rental of one or more stallions of some repute, either for speed, strength, or adaptation to some peculiar purpose of walking, trotting, pacing, or drawing immense loads, or of the graceful form and carriage required in a family horse, and the farmers of the region round bring their mares to these stallions. While in so many cases the dams are ill-formed or overworked, diseased or worn-out, it is a matter of surprise that there are so many really excellent and valuable horses as there are. In Texas there are large herds of wild horses called mustangs, small but spirited, of great powers of endurance, often vicious in temper, which roam over the wide plains of the northwestern portion of the State. They are often captured with the lariat, and partially broken and ridden by the Indians and by the Texan ranchmen and cattle-herders. Neither these nor the vast herds of wild horses in South America are of native stock ; they are descended from herds brought into this country by the Spaniards three centuries or more since, and, being abandoned, have multiplied in the wild state until there are hundreds of thousands and perhaps, on both continents, millions of them. In the prehistoric period several species and perhaps several distinct genera of the horse family existed in the Rocky Mountain region and

the Colorado river basin, and two or three species have also been discovered in South America. These differed in the number and form of their hoofs or toes from the horse of our own times, and seem to have been connecting links between it and some other families of animals.

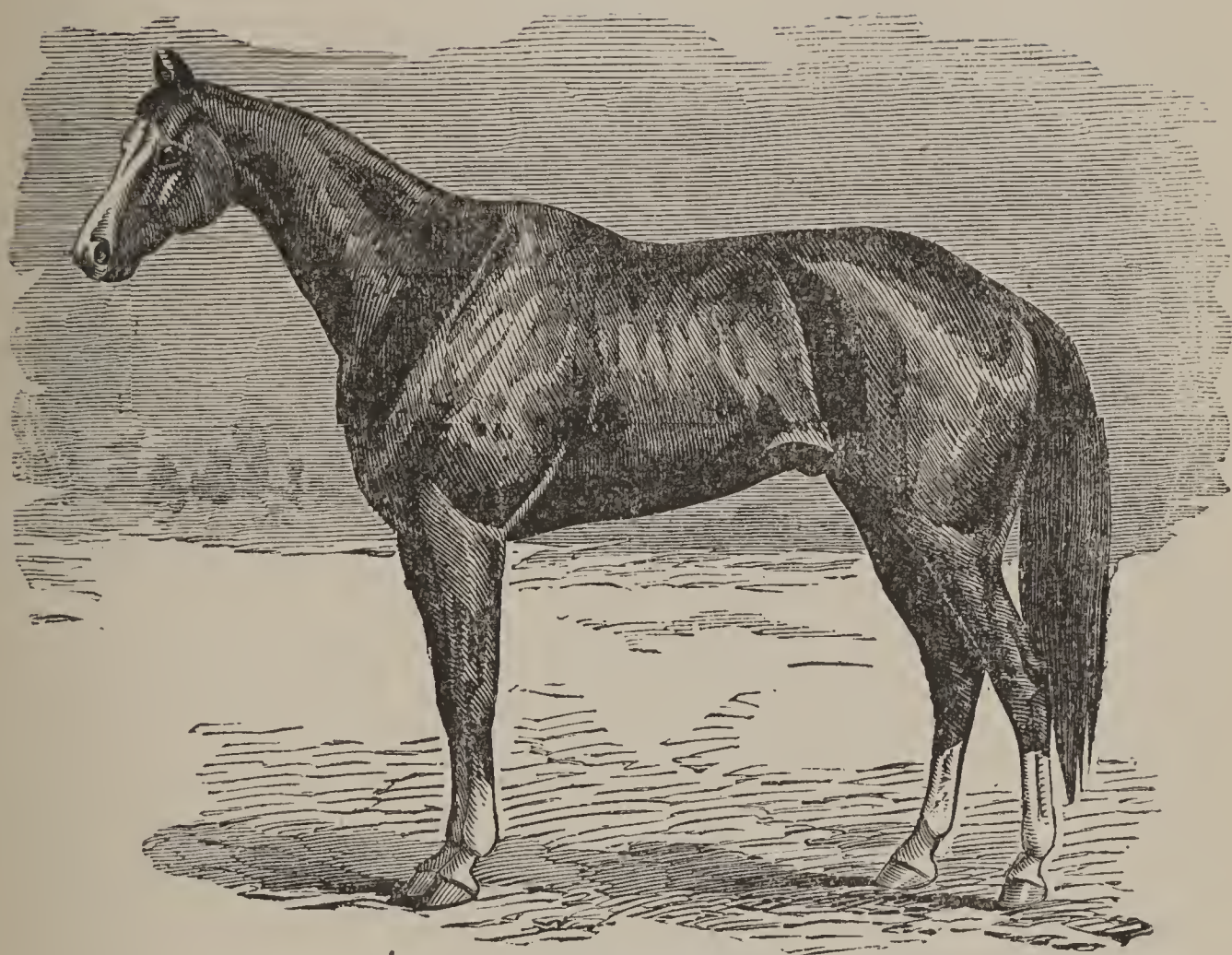
Our space does not permit us to go into the details of the different breeds and kinds of horses in use in this country for different purposes, or into a description of the qualities desired in these different kinds of horses. The fleet racing horse, which can make its mile in 2.17, not for a single mile only, but for two, three or five, like the famous Dexter, whose portrait we give, requires a different form and development, an entirely different training, and comes from a different stock from the gigantic Pennsylvania horse, which in the splendid specimens so often seen on the streets of our great cities, attached to the safe-trucks or the largest wagons of the principal express companies, are in power and size the finest examples of the equine genus. The spirited, patient, hardy, long-lived Morgan horse is admirably adapted for family use and for the lighter purposes of business, though somewhat too small for the heavy work of a farm, or for the stately family carriage. For these purposes there is required a horse from fifteen and a half to sixteen hands high, well proportioned, built for service rather than for speed. For the family carriage there should be a little larger infusion of blood and spirit; for the farm, greater hardiness, endurance, and muscular power, with less speed. The Canadian horses, though somewhat undersized, are hardy, strong, tough, used to rough handling, but long lived and very serviceable. By breeding them with the roadster or even the smaller sizes of the Pennsylvania horse, an excellent cross of better size is produced. The Indian pony, really a small, hardy horse, and the Shetland pony, or "sheltie," as it is often called, are the smallest species of the equine family, but both are very strong and serviceable.

For the farmer's use the Canadian horse, or some cross of it, seems best adapted, though if he can afford it, he should keep also a Morgan or some other horse of greater speed and finer form and carriage. But in the arable lands of the Middle and Western States the farmer who can procure mules for his farm work commits a great error if he does not avail himself of the

opportunity of doing so. The mule is hardier, is serviceable earlier, subsists on poorer food, and less of it, is stronger, lives three times as long, and can do more work than the horse. Obstinacy and a disposition to kick are the sins laid to his charge, but both are the results of training, and neither is necessary if the farmer will train him carefully for the first two years of his life. There are sections where oxen will do most of a farmer's work well, but there are very few where a pair of mules would not do it much better. We have not the space to go into any account of the diseases of the horse or mule, and so abundant are the treatises on these subjects that there is the less need. But we would recommend to every man who owns a horse the supplying himself with some standard works, such as Stonehenge's (J. H. Walsh's) "The Horse in the Stable and Field," "Youatt on the Horse," and Mayhew's "Horse Doctor." There are other works of considerable merit, but these stand highest in the estimation of the most eminent veterinarians.

2. CATTLE.—We use this term in its restricted sense of the bovine herds, for the term is used even by good writers to include horses and sheep, as well as bulls, oxen, and cows. The care of herds was among the earliest of human employments, and in savage, semi-civilized, and civilized countries it has continued to be a common avocation through all the ages. Though a necessary employment, we cannot regard it, when prosecuted on a large scale, as one remarkably conducive to high intellectual advancement.

Yet stock-raising and herding is a necessary branch of agriculture, and when followed with enterprise and sound judgment is a very profitable one. It requires for its successful prosecution extensive and cheap lands for pasturage, and cheap labor, unskilled in everything except the care and control of cattle and a reckless and daring horsemanship. Hence, although considerable herds of cattle are reared on the prairies of Central Illinois by a few large landholders, the largest herds are raised in Texas, Western Arkansas, the Indian Territory, Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Wyoming, New Mexico, and California. There are single herds in Texas numbering from 150,000 to 200,000 head of cattle, and in Southern California some nearly as large. The whole region known as "The Plains," which originally formed a part of what was known as the Great American Desert, embracing Eastern



DEXTER.

OWNED BY ROBERT BONNER.

Colorado, a large portion of Wyoming and Western Kansas and Nebraska, is an excellent grazing region, and cattle are driven north from Texas, and after fattening on the succulent pastures of that region, are driven eastward to supply the markets of the great cities, a part of the herds finding a temporary home in Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky. Another extensive grazing country is found in Florida, where small but hardy cattle are reared in great numbers.

These large herds are never reared for anything else than their flesh and skins. Beeves are slaughtered in great numbers in Texas, and their flesh either sent to the Northern ports on refrigerator steamers, or, by some one of the processes now so well known, reduced to jerked beef, pemmican, extract of beef, soup-stock meat biscuit, etc., etc., while the hides are shipped to the great tanning firms, and the horns, bones, etc., utilized in various ways. But a very large proportion of the cattle owned in the United States are kept for other purposes than present slaughter. In New England and some of the Middle and Western States, the number of working oxen is very large. Eventually most of them come to the butcher, but it is only after years of patient and profitable labor. For many purposes of the farmer one or two yokes of well-trained oxen are the most profitable of animal servants; more hardy, and kept at less cost than a pair of horses, and slower in all matters requiring speed, they are yet very patient in toil, steady and not easily tired, and in plowing, hauling wood or the grains crops, or much of the ordinary heavy work of the farm, they are very serviceable. Our farmers do not make their oxen as serviceable as they might. The Dutch farmer at the Cape of Good Hope, and indeed Dutch farmers very generally, train their oxen to the saddle, and a Dutch boer will make as good time on his favorite long-horned ox as one of our young farmers will on a well-trained colt. They drive their oxen also with reins and a bit, or with rope lines attached to their horns. One accomplishment at least might be taught to working oxen to a greater extent than it now is, by careful early training—that of walking faster. The ox can be taught to walk more rapidly than most horses, and thus taught he is worth twice as much as the beast that drags himself along at a snail's pace.

But throughout all sections of the country, though of course

mainly in the districts best adapted to grazing, large numbers of milch cows are kept. Nearly nine millions of these were reported in the census of 1870, and the Agricultural Reports of last year represent the total number now as a little more than ten millions. They constitute about one-third of the whole number of cattle in this country. The imperfect returns of the census give as the product of these nearly nine millions of cows, for the year 1869-1870, of butter, 514,092,683 pounds; of cheese, 53,492,153 pounds; and of milk sold, 235,500,599 gallons. Milch cows are rarely kept in very large herds; ten, twenty, thirty, fifty, and occasionally a hundred cows form about the average size of a dairy herd. In most of the dairy districts great attention has been paid to securing the best breeds for the special purpose designed. In districts where milk is largely sent to market the Ayrshire cow, though smaller in size than several other varieties, yields the largest quantity of milk in proportion to her size of any of the imported herds, and that of good quality; the short-horned Durham and the Devon are both large, excellent for beef, and yield a good quantity of milk, though not so rich as the Ayrshire; the Herefords and the Dutch Red cows, an old breed early imported, as well as the Connecticut Red cattle, are fair milkers and good cows; a cross of some of these with the Ayrshire is often an improvement in size and absolute quantity of milk. From some of these breeds, or the crosses of them, and oftenest perhaps from a cross of Ayrshire and Durham, Ayrshire and Hereford, Ayrshire and Devon, or Ayrshire and Dutch Red, the great milk-producing districts choose their cows. For the butter and cheese producing sections, while the Ayrshire and Hereford, Durham and Devon cows are in demand, another cow, the Jersey or Alderney, is preferred for the richness and butter-producing qualities of its milk. The Alderney is a small, generally lean, and not prepossessing cow in appearance. She is oftenest of a dun, cream, or yellow color, though occasionally mottled with black; but her milk is mostly cream, and its daily yield throughout the season will in many instances give two or two and a quarter pounds of butter. The managers of the creameries or butter factories and cheese factories say that the milk of the Alderneys alone makes too rich a butter or cheese; that it is better to mix it with that of some of the other breeds, which are not quite so rich.



THE CELEBRATED COW THAT SOLD AT AUCTION FOR \$40,600.

The following description of the marks and points of a good dairy cow, by the eminent English agriculturist Harley, has received the approval of the best dairymasters in this country: "Head small, long, and narrow toward the muzzle; horns small, clear, bent, and placed at considerable distance from each other; eyes not large, but brisk and lively; neck slender and long, tapering toward the head, with a little loose skin below; shoulders and fore-quarters light and thin; hind-quarters large and broad; back straight and joints slack and open; carcass deep in the rib; tail small and long, reaching to the heels; legs small and short, with firm joints; udder square but a little oblong, stretching forward, thin skinned and capacious, but not low hung; teats or paps small, pointing outward, and at a considerable distance from each other; milk-veins capacious and prominent; skin loose, thin, and soft like a glove; hair short, soft, and woolly; general figure, when in flesh, handsome and well proportioned."

The ordinary price of a good cow ranges from \$75 to \$150, according to locality, breed, etc.; but the best specimens of pure blood, whether Durham, Hereford, Devon, Ayrshire, Alderney, or Dutch, bring fabulously high prices. At a sale of Col. Thorne's choice stock—perhaps the finest collection in the world—a year or two since, the prices of some of the bulls and cows reached from \$10,000 to \$15,000, and a fine Durham calf, under six months old, for which a neighboring farmer had, after a long mental conflict, made up his mind to offer \$75, was sold at auction, to his great surprise, at a little more than \$1,500. Still more astounding was the price paid for a cow on which several buyers had set their hearts. After a short competition, she was knocked down at \$40,600. Unfortunately the purchaser did not long enjoy his triumph, as the cow died in the winter of 1874. She was a remarkably beautiful animal, as nearly perfect in her points as any animal ever offered at public sale. We insert a portrait of this famous cow, procured from her late owner. It is worthy of notice that there were many English purchasers at Col. Thorne's sale, representatives of the most eminent stock-breeders among the English nobility, and that it was acknowledged that, in the matter of choice blooded cattle, our American breeders possessed better animals than any of the English or Continental herds.

3. SHEEP.—Sheep husbandry is a very important branch of the husbandman's business, and one which requires a fair amount of knowledge, skill, and care to make it profitable. The location and climate are both important items to be considered; sheep husbandry in the Eastern States is very different from that on the prairie lands of the upper Mississippi Valley, and this latter in turn differs from that of the plains in Texas, the Indian Territory, Colorado, Wyoming, or Western Kansas and Nebraska. The breed is another matter of importance, and this involves the questions whether the sheep are to be bred for their wool or their mutton, a question into which the nearness and size of markets enters; the quality and quantity of wool, if they are reared for the wool, and the quality, fatness or leanness, and size of the carcass, if they are to be reared for mutton. In all localities within 200 or 300 miles of a great city, the flesh or mutton is to be the first consideration, though it will be well if a fleece of moderate weight can also be grown. For this purpose there is no better breed than the South Downs. These thrive well on very moderate pasturage, are very prolific, one-third of the ewes producing twins; they will average a weight of 125 pounds at 12 to 15 months old, and will clip six pounds of wool. Most of the so-called South Down sheep in the Eastern and Middle States are grades, *i.e.*, they are the product of a South Down buck, generally of nearly pure blood, and a ewe of some of the common stocks. If the ewes are carefully selected, these may be even better than a pure blood South Down. The Cotswold are a very fair breed of sheep for mutton; their wool is longer and coarser than the South Down, and the sheep are larger and heavier. They will average 180 pounds weight at fourteen or fifteen months, and sometimes reach 250 pounds or more. They yield seven or eight pounds of wool. The flesh is not quite as fine or tender as the South Downs, but it is of very fair quality.

It is undoubtedly possible to procure, by judicious crossing from our grade ewes, a breed of sheep which for mutton will be equal to the South Down in quality, and of very considerably larger size.

Where the wool is the more important consideration, there is still room for choice between the long-wool (Cotswold or Cotswold grades) and the fine-wool (Merino pure or grades, or Saxony pure or grades). Where a considerable number of a flock must go to

the butcher every year, wool-growers generally prefer the long-wool breeds, because, though the yield of wool is somewhat less, and the wool not quite so high priced, yet the size of the animal gives a larger skin, and the tendency to fat a much greater yield of tallow. To some this excess of tallow renders the flesh unpalatable, but to others, and especially to the Canadians, it is regarded rather as a recommendation.

The Merino sheep were at one time the most popular of all the imported breeds, and in some sections they are still highly esteemed for their yield of fine wool; but their flesh is of indifferent quality, and they are more liable to disease than the other breeds. The Saxony and Saxony grades are not quite so heavy in the fleece, but their wool is fine and they are healthier and of better flavored flesh.

Sheep in the Eastern and Middle States are not usually kept in very large flocks, from one hundred to five hundred being about the range, though occasionally a sheepmaster has a flock of 1,000; but they are usually treated with great care, and fed with cut feed and oil-cake, sliced roots, etc., in addition to hay during the winter months, and kept housed. It is, however, very well established that while liberal winter feeding is necessary, the sheep gain more in weight and in wool to be allowed to run in the pastures, except in storms, than to be housed through the entire winter. Prairie sheep husbandry is of comparatively recent origin, at least in its most profitable phases. Sheep are now reared on the great prairies of Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas, for mutton, and the time has passed when it made no difference to the prairie sheepmaster whether a sheep was a good, large, and well-formed animal, or a mere scrawny, ragged-looking brute, of which all that could be said was that it was called a sheep. Flocks on the prairies are often very large, 3,000, 5,000, 10,000, 20,000, or more. They are pastured for about seven or eight months on the open prairie, with only slight and temporary shelter, under the care of shepherds, whose principal duty, with the aid of their dogs, is to protect them from the prairie wolf and the cur dogs, which have an appetite for mutton; to see that they have good pasturage and sufficient water, and that they are sheltered from the severe storms. During the winter months, the shelters are sometimes improved, and on pleasant days they are

allowed to run at large on the prairie, but fed with hay from the prairie grass which has been cut through the summer, and with corn fodder or root crops which the shepherds have cultivated during their leisure in the summer months. Some sheepmasters bring their flocks in late in the autumn to the home farm, and have them housed and cared for there. From these flocks, reared thus cheaply, comes the greater part of the mutton with which the New York and other great city markets are supplied.

The sheep-husbandry of Texas, the Great Plains, and California, is on a still larger scale. In Texas, except occasionally during the prevalence of a "norther," sheep require neither shelter nor protection. The nutritious grasses and the root crops of Western Texas are sufficient to keep them almost too fat. In California, as well as on the Plains, it is necessary to grow fodder for them, inasmuch as for the most part there is no perennial grass and no sod or turf which can be pastured. Here again the abundant root crops and the straw, with oil-cake, answer an admirable purpose.

Sheep are subject to much fewer diseases than most domestic animals, but some of them are formidable. The worst are, probably: 1. *Grub in the head*—sometimes, though rarely, fatal; this may be prevented by putting tar at the bottom of their feeding-troughs and sprinkling a little salt over it, so that their noses will be smeared with the tar, which is offensive to the grub. 2. *Colic*—manifested by twisting the head, stretching, frequent lying down and rising again, and other symptoms of pain and distress. This can be relieved by dosing with a strong bone-set tea, or by giving an ounce of Epsom salts in warm water, with a teaspoonful of essence of peppermint. 3. *Malignant catarrh*—generally comes on from overcrowding the sheep in barns or sheds where they cannot have a sufficiency of fresh air. Prevention is easier than cure of this. 4. The *scab*; and 5, the *hoof-rot*, are both best treated by the most thorough cleanliness, and the dipping of the parts affected into a strong solution of the cresylic sheep-dip, a coarse soap made from the unrectified carbolic acid, which effectually destroys the disease and prevents its recurrence.

4. SWINE.—"The hog crop," as it is called at the West, is one of our most important agricultural interests. In 1870 there were

over twenty-five million swine in the United States, and, in spite of hog cholera and other diseases to which the animal is liable, the number is constantly increasing. The annual value of the hog products, including lard, hams, bacon, mess-pork, fresh meats, sausages, etc., is more than \$200,000,000. Our exports of pork, hams, etc., form a very large item in our foreign exports. Let us, then, consider briefly what is the best way to make this branch of agricultural industry profitable to Patrons. One of the strong points in our Declaration of Purposes, adopted at St. Louis, was its avowal of the determination to condense the weight of our exports, selling less in the bushel and more on hoof and on fleece. We have shown how this could be done in the case of cattle and sheep, but the principle is still more applicable to the hog than to sheep or neat cattle. The vast production of Indian corn in the States of the Mississippi and Missouri valleys, and the facilities for rearing swine, make pork and pork products a profitable crop for the farmer if he manages wisely. Every bushel of corn fed out to his hogs, or gathered by them in the field, will pay him a much better price, or should do so, than the high charges for freight and the exactions of middlemen leave him if he ships the corn to the great cities, and at the same time he is enriching his land by this feeding the crop on the land which has produced it. But to this end it is necessary, in the first place, that he should raise only the best breeds of hogs, and, in the second place, that there should be coöperation in the packing and preparation of the flesh for the market.

And first, of the *breeds*. It is always more expensive to raise and fatten a poor hog than a good one. One of those tall, gaunt, razor-backed, slab-sided fellows who could make better time than Dexter on the road, and would vault over a six-rail fence without touching—one of the land-pikes, in short—can never be profitably fattened for the market. Like “Pharaoh’s lean kine,” the more they eat the more lean and ill-favored they are. But those small-boned, compact-built porkers, who give you a pound of pork for every two quarts of corn, are by far the most profitable hogs to raise, even though their first cost were five times as much.

What are these best breeds? In most respects the *Chester Whites* are the best breed known in the United States. They are small boned, fatten easily, very perfect and uniform in form, and

every part cuts up to the best advantage. They will fatten more readily on cooked or steamed food than on unground corn or on uncooked meal. Numerous experiments serve to show that they will make from $14\frac{1}{2}$ to $17\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of flesh for every bushel of corn properly cooked. They are a hardy, healthy breed, also, and not subject to so many diseases as some of the other breeds.

The *Berkshires* are larger, are excellent breeders, of good form, and fatten readily and in nearly the same proportion as the Chester Whites. The Prince Albert Suffolks, an improved variety of the Suffolks, are a very excellent breed. The other best known breeds are the Essex, Cheshire, Leicester, Polands, and China. The last is too small, but may be improved by crossing with some of the larger breeds.

Within a few years past great attention has been paid to the improvement of the breeds of swine by the large breeders, and there has been a corresponding improvement in the quality of packed meats and the foreign demand for them. Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Chicago have each in turn taken the lead in the pork trade, and several of the smaller cities have exceeded the amount packed by either of the leaders fifteen years ago. The great packing-houses in the large cities have every facility for transmuting the live hog into mess-pork, hams, shoulders, bacon, and lard in the shortest possible time and the best possible way; but wherever the pork interest is large, the Granges can unite in establishing good packing-houses, and thus save to the farmer a large percentage of profit which now goes into the hands of middlemen. To this form of coöperation there can be no legitimate objection, and by it many hundreds of thousands of dollars may be saved to the producers. These packing-houses might also be so arranged as to pack beef and tallow, to prepare jerked beef and smoked meats; and, as is done in Australia, to try out mutton tallow, pack mutton hams, canned mutton, etc.

The hog has but few diseases, but some of them are very destructive. The *Hog Cholera* has proved very fatal to swine for several years past. Its symptoms are almost constant discharges from the bowels of dark and terribly fetid matter, evidently containing much bile; coldness of the extremities; trembling, and great pain. The disease is contagious. When a hog is attacked with it, it is usually very difficult to make him take much medi-

cine; but the following remedy, administered to the other hogs, will prevent their suffering from it:

Take One pound of sulphur,
Two ounces powdered wood charcoal,
Two ounces of Peruvian bark, and
One ounce of copperas (sulphate of iron)—

all in powder—and thoroughly mixed together. A tablespoonful of the powder should be given three times a day for six days, mixed with the feed. The quantity prescribed above is sufficient for one hog for the six days.

Measles.—The symptoms of this disease are red, inflamed and watery eyes, and pustules about the throat. The treatment is to let the animal fast for twenty-four hours, and then give him a warm drink, a meal gruel, hot, with a teaspoonful of carbonate of soda, and an ounce of Armenian bole mixed in it. After this give him half a teaspoonful of flowers of sulphur, and ten grains of nitre (saltpetre), with every meal, for two or three weeks.

Fever is treated with cooling drinks and purges, and, after it subsides, with nourishing food.

Snuffles should be attended to early, or it may prove fatal. Give twenty grains of white vitriol (sulphate of zinc), or from three to five grains of blue vitriol (sulphate of copper), dissolved in water, morning and evening, for several days; let the food be simple and liquid, a thin meal gruel or cooked meal and water, till patient recovers.

Strangles or Quinsy.—This is said to be very infectious in the hog, though not at all so (unless it is to be regarded as a form of diphtheria) in the human subject. An animal attacked with it should be at once removed from the others, lest it be communicated to them. There is swelling and enlargement of the glands of the throat and jaws, and great tenderness. Cooling medicines, a solution of ten grains of saltpetre in a half gill of water acidulated with vinegar, and a low diet may be sufficient, if the disease has not made much progress. If the swelling and tenderness are considerable, give an even tablespoonful of powdered alum in some warm mash, and see that the animal gets it down. It may be necessary to repeat the dose, but it will break up the disease.

Trichina or *Trichiniasis* is a very peculiar disease, occurring most frequently in swine, and communicated to man by partaking of the raw or partially cooked flesh of the hog which has been infested by the trichinæ. They are little worms from a twentieth to a thirtieth of an inch in length, which, under certain circumstances, infest the stomach and bowels of the hog, and burrowing through the intestines, lodge themselves in the muscles in little cysts, so thickly, that it is said that more than 80,000 have been found in one cubic inch of muscle. When this flesh is eaten, as in ham, sausages, etc., without having been subjected to a heat of at least 170° F., continued for some time, the cysts develop into new worms, which multiply at an astonishing rate, and produce all the symptoms of typhoid fever, often proving fatal, or if not fatal, causing long disability and suffering. Pork should never be eaten till thoroughly cooked. The hog suffers some distress, loss of appetite, wasting of flesh, etc., during the burrowing process of the trichinæ, but they are seldom fatal to him.

The appearance of pork which is commonly called measly is due to another of these pests which infest the intestines of the hog, each measly point being the germ of the dreaded *tape-worm*, which is thus communicated to the human system. The administration of turpentine to swine who are thus infested, and the use of well-salted food, will generally eradicate the worms. The sty should be kept thoroughly clean, as the animal will thrive better, and be far less subject to disease.

GOATS.—In the large cities and their neighborhood the goat is regarded, except by the very poor, as an unmitigated nuisance. It forages everywhere, upsetting ash-barrels and garbage-boxes, destroys costly trees and shrubs, tears down fences, butts children and grown people also, and is a terror to housekeepers. But the Oriental goat is not only a better behaved animal, but is very valuable for its fine hair and its wool, as well as for its flesh. The Cashmerè, Angora, Persian, or Circassian goat, for it is known by all four names, is a large, handsome animal, stately in carriage; its flesh is very nourishing, and its milk excellent in quality; while its fine, delicate long hair is the material from which Cashmere shawls are made, and is worth from four to eight dollars a pound. Some of the varieties, as the Thibet goat, yield also a pound or more of long, white silky wool of the most exquisite

beauty. The Angora goat has been introduced into this country, and this breed and its crosses with our common goat are now reared in very considerable numbers.

POULTRY.—The farmer who is desirous of managing his farm in the most profitable way will not fail to give attention to the rearing of a fair stock of poultry. Much has been written within a few years past in regard to new and choice varieties of poultry, and the “hen-fever” has at times raged pretty fiercely; yet we seriously doubt whether there has been much real improvement on our old-fashioned barnyard fowls. Eggs do not average any larger than they did forty years ago, and they are no richer in flavor, and the spring chickens, though perhaps averaging a little heavier, are in most cases coarser in flesh and of poorer flavor than when they were called by less pretentious names. The coarse, long-legged, harsh-voiced Shanghaes and Cochins are the worst additions ever made to live stock of any description. The Dorkings are better in most respects, being good layers and good sitters, while their flesh is palatable, but somewhat coarse; the Black Spanish lay well, but are not good sitters, and their flesh is dark and unpleasant. The Dominiques and Bramahs are very fair layers and sitters, but their flesh is not equal to that of our old-fashioned barnyard fowl. The Game species, of which there are many varieties, have their uses in protecting the hens and chickens from intruders, and the hens are good sitters, and their flesh remarkably tender and juicy. The Polands and Hamburgs are eatable, and tolerable layers. The Bantam is full of fight and spirit, and the hens lay and sit well; their flesh is fine what there is of it, but they are very small, and their eggs are like pullets’ eggs. On the whole, if a farmer has a stock of the old-fashioned fowls of average size and pluck, we would not advise him to go into the fancy poultry. If he is stocking his poultry-yard for the first time, and can procure a few Dorkings, Bramahs, Dominiques, and Polands, with one or two game-cocks, having no cocks of the other varieties, and having an equal number of hens of the common kind, he will perhaps do as well with these as with any selection he can make. With these he can rear his own poultry thereafter without any further admixture. The Guinea-hen is a very good fowl for a farmyard, where her harsh note is not annoying. These fowls will keep off hawks, and are

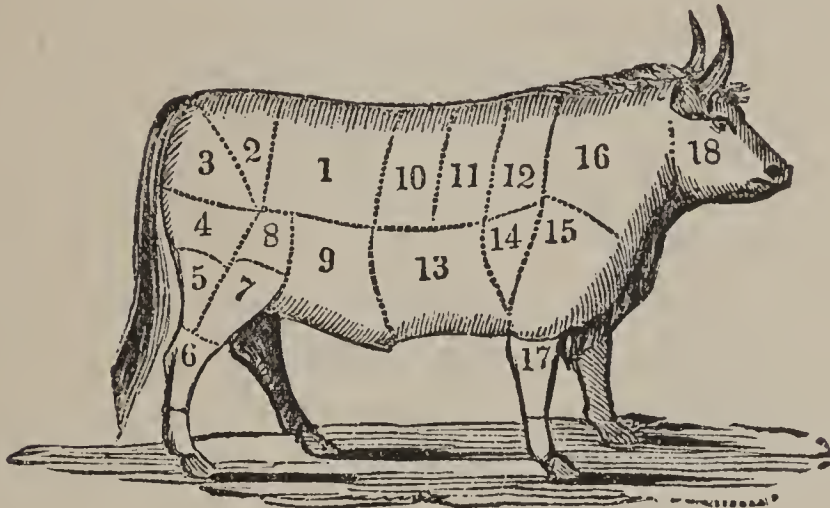
most prolific layers, though their eggs are better for employment in cookery than for eating by themselves. Their flesh is dark-colored, but when young is rather game-flavored. They are not good sitters.

Every farmer should raise *Turkeys*, and of the best varieties he can find. The black or the bronze domestic Turkey being the hen in the first instance, it is well to cross the breed with the wild turkey, or at least with one or two removes from it. In this way there will be a great gain in weight, without loss of flavor or of hardness, and the brood will gain a larger part of their living from insects and other depredators upon the farm than the domestic turkey would be inclined to do. The wild turkey is really one of the most beautiful and stately of birds. There is no description of poultry which pays a better profit in the rearing than turkeys if they are properly cared for during the first thirty days. They will always bring a fairly remunerative price for the care bestowed on them, and the food furnished them. "A brood of turkeys," says an eminent agriculturist, "will pay a better profit, if properly cared for, than a drove of hogs."

Geese and *Ducks* it is well enough to keep where there is plenty of water and grass, but keep them out of the street and out of your neighbor's way. The Bremen goose is the best, and the gray duck, with the green-headed drake, unless you have a pretty pond, when the Mallard or the White Aylesbury will not come amiss. Pigeons cost really comparatively little to keep after preparing a house for them. They multiply rapidly and will furnish any number of Squabs, which are always a pleasure to the sick, who cannot eat hearty food.

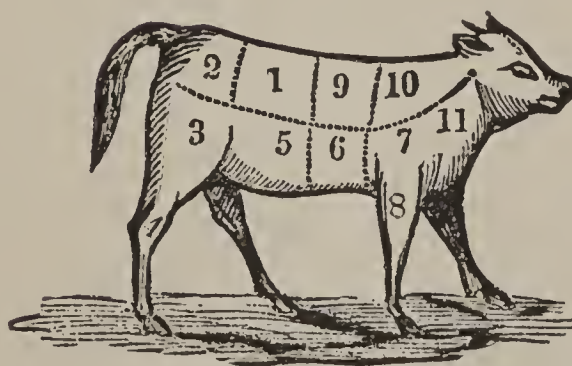
ILLUSTRATIONS—DESCRIBING DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF
THE MOST PROMINENT ANIMALS USED FOR FOOD.

BEEF.



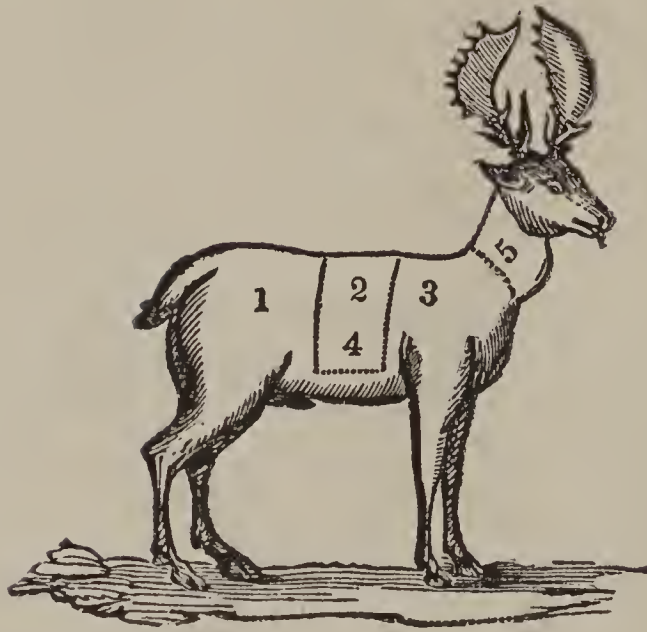
- | | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Sirloin. | 7. Thin mouse-piece. | 13. Brisket. |
| 2. Rump. | 8. Veiny Piece. | 14. Thick Brisket. |
| 3. Edge-bone. | 9. Flank or Thin Loin. | 15. Shoulder. |
| 4. Round. | 10. Seventh Ribs. | 16. Neck. |
| 5. Mouse-piece. | 11. Middle Ribs. | 17. Shin. |
| 6. Leg. | 12. Fore Ribs. | 18. Cheek. |

VEAL.



- | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Loin, best end. | 5. Flank. | 9. Neck, best end of rack. |
| 2. Loin, chump end. | 6. Breast, best end. | 10. Neck, scrag-end. |
| 3. Fillet. | 7. Shoulder, or blade bone. | 11. Breast, brisket-end. |
| 4. Knuckle. | 8. Fore Knuckle. | |

VENISON.

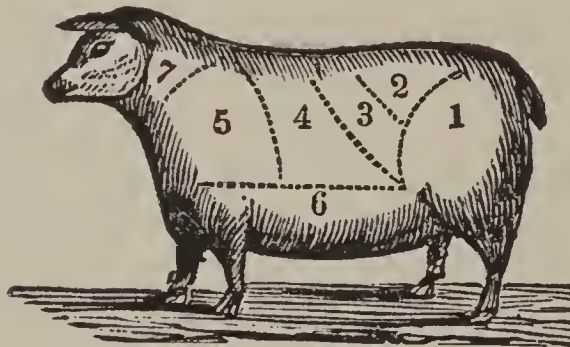


1. Haunch, or Hams.
2. Ribs.

3. Shoulder.
4. Breast.

5. Scrag, or neck.

MUTTON.

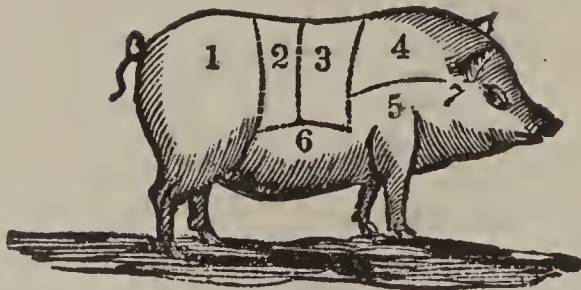


1. Leg.
2. Chump.
3. Loin.

4. Rack or neck, best end. 6. Breast.
5. Shoulder.

7. Neck, scrag-end.

PORK.



1. Leg of Pork, or Ham
of Bacon.
2. Loin.

3. Thin Rib.
4. Spare Rib.
5. Hand or Shoulder.

6. Middling.
7. Chop, cheek, or jowl.

Part III.

Recipes for Household and Farming Wants.

SECTION I.

MEDICAL AND SURGICAL REMEDIES FOR EMERGENCIES.

1. BITES AND STINGS OF ANIMALS.

A. *Bite of a Dog, Cat, or other Animal, whether mad or otherwise.*—Members of the family of a farmer are more liable to this kind of accident than most others, because they usually keep one or more dogs, and fondle and play with them. We do not think the danger of hydrophobia is very great in such cases, for in the first place hydrophobia is not half as common a disease of animals as is generally supposed, though it seems, like some diseases affecting men, to be epidemic and more frequent in some years than others; in the second place, even if the dog is mad, not more than one case in ten of those who are bitten by a dog really mad are ever attacked with hydrophobia.

Still, as there is always a possibility of the disease, it is best to attend to the case promptly. When a person is bitten by a dog or cat, whether mad or not, there is a period, varying from twelve hours to a week in different persons, when the poison, if there is any, remains dormant where it was first communicated to the system, and does not spread. During this period it can very readily be removed and all possible danger prevented. After this time it spreads through the system, unless in some way removed, and if the poison exists in an active state may prove fatal. What, then, is to be done? As soon as possible, after the wound is made, apply, if you have it, a cupping-glass over the wound and keep it on until it bleeds freely, then wash off the blood and apply nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), or, if you cannot get this, blue-stone or blue vitriol (sulphate of copper), being careful to touch every portion of the wound and bind up with a little fold or compress dipped in cold water. This is all the treatment necessary. If you have

not a cupping-glass, let some one suck out the wound thoroughly, being careful, in the first place, that they have no wounds or sores about the mouth, tongue, or lips. If the wound is easily accessible the wounded person may do this himself; then cauterize with nitrate of silver, blue vitriol, or carbolic acid, the last being quite as good as the others if it is at hand.

B. The *bite of a rattlesnake, adder, moccasin, or other poisonous serpent* should be treated in the same way, only with more speed, as there is no time to lose. Sucking such a wound is perfectly safe unless there is some crack or wound about the mouth, lips, or tongue. This should be followed in these cases by caustic applications to the wound (carbolic acid is the best) and the binding a tight ligature between the bitten part and the heart, and the administration of very heavy doses of whiskey, brandy, or other distilled liquor. This neutralizes such portions of the poison as may have already entered into the circulation, and sustains the system during the struggle with the poison. It is almost impossible to produce intoxication in such cases.

C. *Bites and Stings of Insects*.—These are generally relieved by rubbing the part stung or bitten with spirits of hartshorn, or aromatic spirits of ammonia. If there is still pain after three or four applications of this, apply a little sweet-oil or dilute carbolic acid.

2. ACCIDENTS.

We give below twenty-five simple rules for avoiding and preventing accidents.

1. In walking the streets (in a city, town, or large village) keep out of the line of cellars, and never look one way and walk another.

2. Never ride with your arm or elbow outside any vehicle.

3. Never alight from a steam car while in motion.

4. In stepping from any wheeled vehicle while in motion, let it be from the rear, if possible, and not in front of the wheels; for then, if you fall, the wheels cannot run over you.

5. Never attempt to cross a road or street, in front of a passing vehicle, for if you stumble or slip you are liable to be run over.

6. In a runaway, it is safer, as a rule, to keep your place and hold fast than to jump out. Getting out of a carriage or wagon over the back, provided you can hold on a little while, is safer than springing from the side.

7. Be particularly cautious when in a boat on river, lake, or other deep water, or in the vicinity of deep water.

8. During a thunder-storm avoid the neighborhood of trees, iron gates, lightning-rods, leaden spouts, or other conductors of electricity.

9. Lay loaded guns in safe places, and never snap a gun in jest, or draw it to you by the muzzle.

10. Never sleep near lighted charcoal; if drowsy at any work where charcoal fires are used, take the fresh air.

11. If you are where gas is used for lighting, never *blow it out*, but *turn* it off, and before retiring see that none of it escapes.

12. When benumbed with cold exercise yourself vigorously; rub yourself, if able, with snow, and do not hastily approach the fire.

13. If caught in a drenching rain, or if you have fallen into the water, keep in sufficiently active motion to prevent the slightest chilliness until you reach your home; then change your clothing with great rapidity in a warm room, and drink freely of some hot liquid.

14. Before entering vaults or dry wells lower a lighted candle to the bottom; if it will not burn, animal life cannot exist there, and the foul air should be replaced by pure before venturing. (Quick-lime and a little water will do this, or generally powdered charcoal, or a strong solution of caustic soda or ammonia thrown into the air so as to descend in a spray.

15. Never leave horses on the street or road unfastened.

16. Do not ride on sidewalks or footpaths, nor walk on carriage roads or railroad tracks.

17. See to it that the children do not get into mischief, and especially that they do not play with fire.

18. Leave no poisons open or accessible, and never fail to write the word "Poison," in large letters, on any poisonous substance, wherever it may be placed.

19. Never throw pieces of orange-peel or banana-skin on the sidewalk, nor broken glass bottles into the road.

20. Never meddle with gunpowder, gun-cotton, or benzine, by candlelight.

21. Never trim or fill a kerosene lamp while lighted, and *never light a fire with kerosene or coal-oil*.

22. Keep lucifer or other self-igniting matches in their cases, and never let them be strewed about.

23. In frosty or icy weather, take extra care to avoid a fall.

34. Have your horses' shoes roughed as soon as there are indications of a frost.

25. Before retiring for the night, carefully look through the house to see that everything is as it ought to be.

By a careful observance of the above rules, many accidents will be avoided; but some are nevertheless unavoidable, and for these we offer a few simple suggestions:

Bleeding from Cuts or Wounds.—If the bleeding is not in very considerable quantity and does not come in jets or jerks, it is usually sufficient to apply powdered alum; or better, after drawing the wound together and keeping it together by adhesive plaster or Husband's plaster, to dip a little fold of cotton or linen cloth (four or five thicknesses) in solution of perchloride of iron, which is to be had of any druggist, and should always be kept in the house, and then put on a bandage, if it is where it can be bandaged. It will heal up without a scar with this treatment.

But if the bleeding is copious and comes in jets, you may know that an artery is severed, and the case is more serious. In such a case press firmly with the thumb or forefinger upon the blood-vessel which beats nearest to the wound, and between it and the heart, till you find that the flow of blood is greatly diminishing; and meanwhile let somebody get a strong band, like suspender webbing, or a handkerchief if they have nothing better, and if the wound is on one of the limbs, tie the band or handkerchief tightly around the limb between the wound and the heart, letting the knot be, if possible, over the artery; if the bleeding continues, get a stick, and, putting it under the band or handkerchief, twist it till the pressure is sufficient to stop the bleeding. If the wound is where the band cannot be applied, do not give up; if it is in the thigh, press with your thumb steadily, as hard as you can, upon the great artery in the groin, applying at the same time the rags dipped in solution of perchloride of iron to the wound; if it is in the groin, let the patient lie on his back, and wrapping your closed fist in cloths, press hard through the bowels upon the aorta or great artery which runs along the

inner surface of the spine, applying the perchloride of iron as before. If the wound is in the shoulder, take the ring of a door-key and make a strong pressure with it above the collar bone, about its middle and against the first rib which lies under it. If the wound is in the face, use the compress dipped in perchloride of iron, pressing it upon the wound ; and if you can get a piece of ice, apply that also to aid the coagulation of the blood. After the bleeding stops entirely, clear away the blood and everything else which has been applied very gently with a fine sponge or soft linen cloth, and then, if you can, bring the sides of the wound together throughout its whole depth and hold them in place by strips of adhesive plaster, so that it may heal without forming matter or leaving a scar. If the wound is large, it may need a bandage and compresses to keep it in place.

Bleeding from the Lungs.—If not profuse, this may generally be checked by a strong solution of table salt in water, taking a teaspoonful or two at a time. If profuse, a strong tea of hardhack taken cold is a very good styptic, and the swallowing of small pieces of ice is often a grateful as well as effective help. In still more urgent cases, from five to twenty drops of the regular solution of perchloride of iron in about two tablespoonfuls of water, will be found effective.

Bleeding at the Nose.—This is sometimes, though not often, troublesome. If the ordinary remedies—such as snuffing up cold water, clasping the hands above the head, pressure upon the small artery behind the nostril and at the root of the upper lip, thrusting a roll of paper or cloth made hard between the upper lip and gums, drawing down the lip upon it and pressing hard upon it with the finger—fail to stop, it is best to resort at once to the use of the perchloride of iron solution. Little rolls or plugs of linen rolled hard, dipped in this and pushed up the nostrils, will check it with more certainty than anything else.

Burns and Scalds.—These accidents are always painful and often dangerous. Where they are not very extensive, coating the surface with the white of one or more eggs, and then sprinkling flour on the burn from a dredging-box till it is at least a quarter inch thick, is the simplest and best application. It will heal and leave no scar. For more extensive burns, the best remedy unquestionably is the following : Take linseed-oil pure, or perfectly

sweet olive-oil, and lime-water, of each 8 ounces (half a pint); carbolic acid pure, half an ounce; mix and shake well.

Apply this by linen rags saturated with it, and spread very gently and tenderly over the scalded or burned flesh, and keep them moist by frequently smearing them with a feather dipped in the liquid.

Cramps.—When these affect the legs, they can be relieved by suddenly extending the leg and throwing the heel out as far as possible. A brisk rubbing of the legs and feet with a hair glove or Russian towel before going to bed will prevent their coming on. Cramp in the stomach is generally relieved by a dose of a teaspoonful of aromatic spirits of ammonia in three or four tablespoonfuls of water. In very severe cases, a little whiskey, Jamaica rum, or pure French brandy, may be necessary to relieve the acute distress; it should be taken clear.

Drowning.—The recommendations for the treatment of persons apparently drowned have been so widely circulated, and are so generally understood, that it is hardly necessary for us to introduce them here. The great points to be kept in mind are to restore animal warmth by hot blankets, bottles of hot water, and rubbing tenderly yet persistently; to remove the fluids from the stomach and lungs, and endeavor to restore breathing by changes of position, gentle pressure on the chest, and by drawing up the arms and lowering them; and finally, when the patient begins to breathe, to promote warmth and circulation by rubbing, hot flannels, and stimulating food and drinks.

The body should never be rolled on a cask, and never rubbed with salt or spirits, and never held up by the feet to allow the water to run out. These measures will be sure to extinguish life if it is still there.

If a person is in danger of drowning, and the spectators are none of them able to swim, they may still save his life if they will preserve their presence of mind. They should call to him to keep his hands and arms under water, and to throw his head back so that his mouth will be above water, and if he is within reach of ropes or spars, they should push or throw these to him.

If any bystander can swim, he should go at once to his assistance, retaining his presence of mind, and carefully avoiding the possibility of the drowning person clinging to him, or clasping

him in his arms, which would inevitably result in the drowning of both; the swimmer should seize the drowning man firmly by the arm between the shoulder and elbow, and treading water or swimming as low down in the water as possible, get him into shoal water, or to a boat or spar. If he cannot do this, and has a good deal of muscular power, and is an expert swimmer, let him throw one arm around the back of the drowning man, so as to clasp the arm of the opposite side and keep it down, and then swimming with the other arm and his feet, bring him in; but never should he suffer the drowning man to clasp him about the waist or to get hold of his hands.

Fainting.—When a person faints away, do not be alarmed or make any outcry, but lay him at full length on his back on the floor, or on a lounge, sofa, or bed; if the collar or neck-band is tight, loosen it, keep the crowd away, and let him have fresh air in plenty. A little water sprinkled on the face will sometimes help to bring back consciousness, or a bottle of smelling-salts applied to the nose; but in most cases, if, after the above precautions are taken, the person is let alone, he will speedily recover consciousness and feel none the worse after a little.

When the *clothing of a child or woman takes fire*, if they are alone they should instantly throw themselves on the floor and roll over and over, till they have put out the fire. Never run to the door or window, or open either, but drop instantly and roll on the floor; avoid breathing the flame or smoke. If another person is in the room, he or she should at once throw the one on fire to the floor, and, catching a table-cover, rug, coat, or any heavy cloth, smother the flame as quickly as possible. More care should be practised than is now, to prevent clothing from catching fire so readily. A teaspoonful of powdered borax in the starch used will make all calicoes, muslins, etc., incombustible.

Frost-Bites and Frozen Limbs.—Take the person frost-bitten at once into a cold room, and rub the frozen part with snow or very cold water. After a while, friction with the dry hand or with soft flannel may be used, but the warmth should be restored very gradually. Frozen limbs should be plunged in cold water or snow and the frost drawn out without any application of heat. As a permanent relief for frozen feet, after the use of cold water a strong lye made from wood-ashes, and strained off, adding a

large handful of salt to each quart, is a good application. It should be quite warm, and the feet should be plunged in it for one or two hours.

Poisons and their Antidotes.—We only refer to those most common and dangerous. Children sometimes, in ignorance, partake freely of some intoxicating liquor or fruit which has been preserved in alcohol or brandy, such as brandied cherries, peaches, or plums, and become seriously intoxicated. Give large draughts of warm water and a teaspoonful of bruised mustard-seed, or ground mustard in a teacupful of warm water, to excite vomiting; pour cold water on the head and back of the neck, and if they are inclined to be drowsy and breathe heavily, whip them smartly on the hands, the soles of the feet, or the skin elsewhere with a tough birchen or ash twig, and endeavor to impress on their minds, through their senses, that they must never take the poison again.

Arsenic, either in the white powder (arsenious oxide) in which it is sold in the shops, or in the form of Paris Green (arsenite of copper), or more rarely Fowler's solution, is a somewhat frequent poison, and in either form, whether taken accidentally or on purpose, produces sickness at the stomach, fainting, a sense of burning at the pit of the stomach, vomiting, excessive thirst, tightness, dryness, and a sense of constriction of the throat, diarrhœa, slow and irregular pulse, unconsciousness, convulsions, and death, if not speedily relieved. The remedies are emetics, and first and best a tablespoonful of bruised mustard-seed, or a heaping teaspoonful of ground mustard in a pint or more of lukewarm water, following this with another pint of warm water immediately; after copious vomiting by means of this, milk, gruel, whites of half a dozen eggs, flaxseed tea in large quantity, and calcined magnesia, a heaping teaspoonful in half a teacup of milk. In severe cases call a physician as soon as possible, but while he is coming keep giving these things.

Corrosive Sublimate (bichloride of mercury) in solution, used in many houses as a bedbug poison, is liable to be taken by mistake, and produces symptoms very much like those of arsenic, with perhaps more severe pain in the stomach and bowels, and greater depression of the system. The remedies for this, which must be used at once, are the whites of a dozen eggs; wheat-flour stirred up in water; milk, liquid starch, iron-filings, and as

soon as possible relieve the stomach by large draughts of warm water and doses of bruised mustard-seed.

The Deadly Nightshade (*Solanum dulcamara*), with its bright-red sweetish berries, is very attractive to young children, and is sometimes eaten by them in sufficient quantity to poison them. For this the emetic of mustard and warm water is the first remedy, to be followed by castor-oil, or sweet-oil in large doses, and by vinegar and water, lemon-juice and water, wormwood tea, infusion of quassia, wild cherry, or camomile flowers.

Wild or Fool's Parsley is sometimes gathered and eaten in mistake for the common parsley of the gardens. It produces great thirst and heat in the throat; a feeling as of a load at the stomach; sickness of the stomach, vomiting, and occasionally purging; the skin moist and cold, a clammy skin, frequent but small pulse, headache, dizziness, and delirium. The treatment is much like that for Deadly Nightshade, except the acids. Emetics of mustard and warm water, milk, flaxseed, or camomile tea, castor-oil, warm bath, peppermint tea, or a teaspoonful of the essence in a half teacup of sweetened water, a teaspoonful or more of paregoric.

Foxglove (*Digitalis purpurea*), a beautiful blue flowering plant of the field and garden, is also sometimes eaten by children. The symptoms of poisoning by it are irregular pulse, dizziness, dimness of sight, sickness of the stomach, vomiting, cold clammy sweats, hiccough, wandering and flightiness of the mind, fainting and convulsions. The remedies are emetics of warm water and mustard-seed, followed by carbonate of ammonia, or aromatic spirits of ammonia, twenty drops of the latter in three tablespoonfuls of water; chloric ether, the same dose; or brandy, two or three teaspoonfuls in sweetened water, repeated if necessary; frequent and thorough rubbing of the limbs; mustard-plasters or blister-plasters over the stomach; cold water poured on the head and back of the neck.

Poison Hemlock (*Corium maculatum*) is another of our indigenous poisonous plants in the fields and meadows. It produces delirium and dimness of sight, swelling of the bowels, with great pain, purging, and vomiting. The remedies are the warm-water and mustard emetics (repeated if needful); flaxseed tea, camomile tea, milk, gruel; cold water poured on the head and back of the neck; chloric ether, twenty drops to four tablespoonfuls of

sweetened water; in severe cases two or three teaspoonfuls of whiskey, or pure brandy, in water; lemon-juice, lemonade, vinegar and water, etc., etc.

Henbane (*Hyoscyamus niger*) is a common garden plant, and is quite poisonous. It produces, in large doses, sickness, stupor, dimness of vision, the semblance of intoxication, wandering of the mind, enlargement of the pupils of the eyes, and unconsciousness. The remedies are the emetics as before, acid drinks, mustard-plasters over the stomach, aromatic spirits of ammonia as above, brandy, chloric ether or other stimulants, strong coffee, and thorough rubbing of the skin with a haircloth glove.

Meadow Saffron (*Colchicum autumnale*) is a poisonous root found in meadow and wet lands. When eaten it produces sickness at the stomach, severe vomiting and purging, griping pains in the bowels, dizziness, cold sweats, small, frequent, but irregular pulse, delirium, and convulsions. The treatment is to increase the vomiting, if not already free enough, by warm water and mustard-seed, and then give mucilages, slippery elm and flaxseed tea, paregoric in teaspoonful doses, and stimulants, such as chloric ether, brandy, etc.

Monk's Hood (*Aconitum napellus*).—The symptoms of poisoning by this, one of the most active of the vegetable poisons (though a common garden plant), are very similar to those of the meadow saffron, but more severe—and the treatment is similar, though with the addition of acid drinks, and sometimes a little more decided stimulation.

The *Mountain Laurel* (*Kalmia latifolia* and *angustifolia*), a beautiful shrub, whose clusters of pink blossoms so adorn even barren hills, is a virulent poison, the honey made from its flowers being poisonous, the flesh of birds feeding upon its buds in winter proving a fatal poison, and its leaves being a deadly poison to sheep. The symptoms of poisoning by it in the human subject are dizziness, sudden and violent flushings of fever and chilliness, nausea, repeated vomitings and purgings, delirium, with great weakness, profuse sweating, weak and rapid pulse, convulsions, etc. The treatment is the same as for most of the preceding vegetable poisons, with perhaps the mucilaginous drinks a little more frequent than in most, and strong coffee given freely.

Thorn Apple, Jamestown Weed, Jimson Weed, Stink Weed (*Da-*

tura stramonium), are the various names given to one of the most offensive weedy pests of our roadsides and worn-out lands, a plant whose whole appearance proclaims its poisonous character, but which yet possesses some medicinal value. Its shining seeds and its purple blossoms sometimes attract children. Its poisonous effects are dizziness, delirium, dilatation of the pupils of the eyes, stupor, convulsions, paralysis, cold sweats, great dryness of the throat, feeble and irregular pulse, and visions of a hideous or ludicrous character. Thorough and speedy emetics are necessary in these cases, and the mustard should be used freely, with as many quarts of warm water as the patient can be made to swallow. Generally this will be sufficient, but it may be necessary in some cases to add a little stimulating medicine.

Tobacco.—This is a poison to others than children, and has caused the death of thousands. But children, in their ambition to be men, will attempt to chew or smoke the vile weed, and it often produces rather serious symptoms, such as severe sickness at the stomach, vomiting, headache, sudden sinking of the strength, cold sweats, and convulsions. The remedies are the usual emetics and warm water, purgatives, acid drinks, camphor, and some decided counter-irritation in the way of a sound spanking judiciously and vigorously applied.

Poison Ivy, Poison Dogwood, and Poison Sumac (*Rhus venenata*, *Rhus toxicodendron*, and *Rhus vernix*) are among our commonest poison plants. Some persons are not affected by them; others are severely poisoned and their skins blistered by passing them, or even by the smoke from the burning of the shrubs. The symptoms of the poisoning are those of erysipelas—itching, redness, burning, swelling watery blisters, and subsequent peeling of the skin. These symptoms generally appear within one or two days after exposure, and usually do not last more than a week. The best remedy is to bathe the skin freely with sweet spirits of nitre. When the blisters have broken so as to permit the nitre to penetrate the skin, only one application is usually necessary. Sweet-oil (not that which is rancid), the blisters being anointed with it two or three times a day or oftener, and two tablespoonfuls taken internally three times a day, will generally effect a cure.

Oxalic Acid.—This is coming to be so much used in families

that cases of poisoning by mistaking it for Epsom salts are not infrequent. It produces a hot, burning taste in swallowing it; immediate and constant vomiting, the matter thrown up being of a brownish or greenish hue and intensely acid; sometimes severe pain, great prostration; pulse small, threadlike, and hardly perceptible, but irregular; numbness and spasm of the limbs. The treatment is copious drinks of warm water, and, as soon as they can be procured, mucilages, with prepared chalk; calcined magnesia made into a cream with water and administered freely; lime-water and oil; and mustard over the stomach.

Phosphorus.—This is usually taken in the form of matches, the ends of which are bitten off by little children. There is a form of phosphorus poisoning in the cities, caused by inhaling the phosphorus fumes in making the matches, but that is a disease for the hospitals. The symptoms of the ordinary disease are a hot taste like garlic or onions in the mouth, violent pains in the stomach, nausea and vomiting, great excitement of the arteries, and convulsions. The remedy is to fill up the stomach with magnesia and water, and to give warm water, mustard, and nauseating drinks to keep up the vomiting.

Stings of Bees, Wasps, and Hornets.—The sting of the bee is barbed and is always left in the wound; those of the wasp and hornet are pointed only, and inject a poison, but do not remain in the wound. The wound should if possible be sucked to remove the poison, and if then aromatic spirits of ammonia is applied, or a little common whiting mixed with water, the pain will usually cease. A slice of a common onion rubbed on the part stung by a wasp or hornet, or if it is in the throat, the piece chewed slowly and swallowed, will give instant relief.

Sunstroke.—Sunstroke appears in two forms. In the first the man is faint from the excessive heat, and perhaps unable to move, but not wholly unconscious; he has a feeble pulse and a cool, moist skin. In these cases there is simply a loss of nervous power, and if the man is promptly removed to a cool, shady place, cold water or ice applied to the head, and iced wine and water or other cool stimulant administered, he will presently be relieved. The other form is much more severe: the patient suddenly falls to the ground, completely unconscious; the skin is pungently hot and dry, like that of a patient in typhus fever; his breathing is

hurried, convulsions frequently occur, and death soon takes place unless the proper treatment is promptly applied. This consists in a speedy removal to a cool and shady place, perfectly private, the constant application of ice or ice-cold water to the whole body, and the keeping of pieces of ice under the arm-pits, a physician being summoned as quickly as possible.

Foreign Bodies in the Throat.—It very often happens that a fish-bone, pin, or piece of meat or small bone sticks in the throat, and there is danger of suffocation from it. When an accident of this kind occurs, ask the patient to be perfectly still; then open his mouth and look into it. If you see the obstruction and can reach it with your fingers or a pair of long nippers, remove it. If it cannot be got up, and will do no harm to the stomach, push it down with the handle of a spoon or a round, limber piece of whalebone, having first covered the spoonhandle or whalebone with some folds of fine soft linen. If you cannot get it up or down, place four grains of tartar emetic (tartrate of antimony and potassa) in the patient's mouth, and as it dissolves it will make him excessively sick, and the offending substance from the relaxation will either descend into the stomach or be ejected from the mouth. If it is a sharp or pointed body the patient should eat plentifully of oatmeal mush, hasty-pudding, or something of the kind, and thus protect the stomach and bowels from injury. It will generally pass off without injury.

SECTION II.

FARM, ORCHARD, AND DAIRY.—VALUABLE HINTS.

WE will begin with the orchard. To every farmer who has land which can be made available for the purpose we would say, Plant an orchard of choice fruit-trees; apples for summer eating, for fall use, and for winter keeping; and be sure to get the best varieties. What these are for a particular locality depends upon its climate, its soil, and the length of its seasons of mild weather. The following list was recommended by a committee of eminent fruit-growers as best adapted to the vicinity of New York city:

Summer Apples.—Early Bough (sweet), Early Harvest (acid), American Summer, Pearmain, Summer Rose, Strawberry.

Autumn.—Autumn Bough, Gravenstein, Hawley, Fall Pippin, Porter, Jersey Sweeting.

Winter.—Baldwin, Rhode Island Greening, Jonathan, Monmouth Pippin, Spitzenberg (Esopus), Tallman's Sweeting, King of Tompkins County, English Russet.

We should add to this list for New England, New York, Ohio, Northern Indiana and Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Northern Iowa, and Dakota: For summer apples, the Red Astrakhan, Sops of Wine, and the Carolina Red June; for autumn, the Newtown Pippin (the best exporting apple we have), the Vandervere, the Pearmain, Smith's Beauty of Newark, the Hubbards-town Nonesuch, Fameuse, Rambo, Belmont, and the Golden and Twenty Ounce Sweetings; for winter, the Northern Spy, the Swaar, the Westfield Seek-no-farther, the Winesap, Rawle's Janet, the Prentiss, and the Roxbury Russet. For the central belt, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Southern Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Southern Indiana and Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Southern Iowa, the following are the best, *Summer*—Early Harvest, Red Astrakhan, Carolina Red June, American Summer Pearmain, Large Yellow Bough. *Autumn*—Maiden's Blush, Buckingham, Rambo, Jersey Sweeting, Golden Sweet, Late Strawberry, Gravenstein. *Winter*—Rawle's Janet, Ortley, Yellow Bellflower, Winesap, Rome Beauty, Newtown Pippin, Ben Davis, Rambo, Pryor's Red, Peck's Pleasant, Robston Pippin, Vandervere, White Pippin, Jonathan, Bullock's Pippin, Rhode Island Greening, Fallawater, London Pippin, Smoke-house, Limber Twig.

The Gilliflower, one of our oldest early winter apples, is much prized by many fruit-growers as a table apple.

The best apples for the Southern States are said by Southern authorities to be: Yellow May, Red Astrakhan, Early Harvest, Red June, Yellow June, Toccoa, Horse, Bachelor, Meigs' Disharoon, Green Crank, Tillaquah Cullasaga Mangum, Kentucky Streak, Nickajack Yahoola, Cheston or Rabbit Nose, Schockley, and Stevenson's Winter.

Planting apple-trees is an art. Be careful not to plant too deep. Dig the hole perhaps two feet, and large enough to let all the roots spread out. Then put in a compost of well-rotted manure and meadow mud, and on the top of this a sufficient quan-

tity of rich, fine soil to bring it up to within a foot or less of the surface. Then set the tree with every root and rootlet spread out and not dipping, and cover them carefully with soil and compost; throw in the soil lightly and tenderly, putting on an abundance of water as you fill up; and when it is well covered press the soil over it with the feet gently. Let the roots be near enough to the surface to get the benefit of light and heat, manures and rains. A tree thus planted will, if a good variety, grow, and in season bear finely. Let no suckers accumulate about the roots of your apple-trees—pull them off when they are in leaf.

Renovate old apple-trees by using a white wash of fresh quicklime and water freely. Soot around the roots of your trees will make them thrive better, and mixed with milk and painted on the tree will keep rabbits from gnawing it.

Ashes and manure around the roots of an apple-tree, or a good and frequently repeated drenching with strong soapsuds, will keep the plant-lice (*aphides*) off, and the same application with unleached ashes or lime, or even coal ashes, put close to the roots, scraping away the earth first, will drive away the borer.

PEARS.—It pays to grow good pears. There is no fruit which brings so uniformly high a price in the markets of our large cities as Bartlett pears. Seckles, Duchess d'Angoulêmes, and Sheldons, all bring remunerative prices, but the Bartlett is king of the pears. There is some patience, it is true, in waiting for the crop, but it will be rewarded if your trees are of good quality. Set out standards. Don't experiment with dwarfs; they are a delusion and a snare. Be careful to ascertain that your trees are true to name, and of a good healthy stock.

There are summer, autumn, and winter pears, but the autumn must be your principal reliance. The following list comprises the best varieties, though there are several others which well deserve mention :

Summer Pears.—Doyenne d'Été, Dearborn's Seedling, Beurré Giffard, Rostizer, Tyson.

Autumn.—Bartlett, Seckel, Beurré d'Anjou, Beurré Superfin, Beurré Bosc, Beurré Diehl, Doyenne Boussock, Duchess d'Angoulême, Flemish Beauty, Louise Bonne de Jersey, Glout Morecean, Fondante d'Automne, Beurré d'Aremberg, Sheldon, Andrews, Howell, and Merriam.

Winter.—Vicar of Wakefield, Winter Nelis, Lawrence, Beurré Gris d'Hiver Nouveau.

Most pears do best on a clay soil well mixed with sand, but a few grow most thriftily on a sandy loam.

The pear is preyed upon by the canker-worm, by the measuring worm, the borer, and sometimes by the curculio. It does not usually commence bearing till it is six years old or more, but is long-lived, and bears fruit, sometimes, till it is a hundred and fifty or two hundred years old. It is not considered fully in bearing till after its tenth year. Anywhere in the vicinity of our large cities there is hardly anything in farming that pays better than cultivating choice varieties of pears.

PEACHES.—The peach is a short-lived tree, comes in bearing soon, but is only successful, in the largest sense, in certain localities. The great peach districts east of the Rocky Mountains are New Jersey, Delaware, Eastern Maryland and Eastern Virginia, Southwestern Michigan, and in a more limited way, Eastern Georgia, and Western Arkansas. Peaches are grown everywhere where the climate is not too cold, and the frosts too early in the autumn, too late in the spring, and too deep in the winter; but they are largely grown for market purposes only in these localities. The American Pomological Society give the following list of the best peach-trees in the order named: Crawford's Early, Crawford's Late, Oldmixon Freestone, Large Early York, Morris White, George IV., Cooledge's Favorite, Early York, Heath Clingstone, Grosse Mignonne, Oldmixon Cling, Troth's Early, Sturtevant, Ward's Late, Smock Freestone, Cole's Early Red, Haine's Early Red, Lemon Clingstone, Barnard, Jacques, Rodman's Clingstone, Stump the World, Yellow Rareripe, Bergen's Yellow, Columbia, Druid Hill, Grand Admirable, Hall's Early, Kenrich's Health, Late Red Rareripe, Scott's Nonpareil, Tippecanoe Clingstone, Yellow Alberge, Van Zandt's Perfect, Bellegarde, Early Tillotson, Hill's Madeira, Large White Clingstone, Malta, Royal George. To these we should be inclined to add the Van Buren Golden Dwarf, a yellow Clingstone of large size and fine flavor, a prolific bearer, a small tree, but very hardy.

The borer and the yellows are the principal enemies of the peach-tree. The use of quicklime or unslaked lime around the roots, or of coal-ashes around the crown of the roots, first digging

cut the worm and its gummy nest, will generally destroy the borer, and will materially diminish the injury from the yellows.

It is as well to raise peaches from the seed or pit, and bud them, if the natural fruit is not good.

CHERRIES.—These are growing somewhat out of favor with our fruit culturists, partly because sufficient attention has not been paid to cultivating the choice varieties, and partly because they come at a time when the market is glutted with other small fruits. Still there are few fruits more delicious than the best varieties of cherries. All our cherries are propagated by grafting or budding on the Mazzard or half-wild black cherry of New England (*Cerasus serotina*). The best varieties are the Governor Wood, which ripens usually by the middle of June; the Black Tartarian, rather late, but very fine; the May Duke, and indeed the whole family of Dukes, including the Late Duke, Arch Duke, Vail's August Duke, Prince's Duke, and Jeffrey's Duke, are all of excellent quality (Prince's Duke is a shy bearer); Coe's Transparent is excellent for family use, but does not bear distant transportation; the Bigarreau and Napoleon Bigarreau are very fine cherries, but must not be picked till they are fully ripe; the American Heart, American Amber, Elton, Downing's Red Cheek, and Downie's Late Cherry are all first-class cherries; the Carnation is a small late cherry, but is often picked too soon for preserving in brandy. It is not ripe till after July 15, ordinarily. The Honey Cherry, and especially Sparhawke's Honey, is a very sweet variety, ripening from July 1 to 15, and though small is well worthy of cultivation. The old varieties, Kentish, Early White Oxheart, Black Oxheart, and Red Oxheart, are tolerable market cherries, if they are already growing on the farm and can be kept till they are ripe, but they should not be planted or grown by any one who can procure the better varieties. There are several double flowering cherries, which do not fruit, but are cultivated for ornament and are very beautiful. One of them has blossoms as large as a good-sized white rose.

What is called the Jerusalem Cherry is not a cherry at all, but belongs to the tomato family (*Physalis viscora*). It is an annual, and is cultivated like the tomato.

The PLUM has for many years past been so much infested with curculios (the little Turk) that it is not largely grown. It is

usually propagated by budding the choice varieties on the Wild Canada Plum or the Blue Horse Plum, but very often seedlings produce new and choice varieties. It requires a strong rich clayey soil, and should be planted so that its boughs will hang over water, unless the farmer chooses to have his hogs root up the ground under the plum-trees and destroy the imperfect fruit, and the poultry exercise their diligence in picking up the worms. In either way, and perhaps also by a persistent application of lime and sulphur every two or three days for four or five weeks, this pest may be driven off. The black knot which also disfigures plum-trees is also produced by the curculio. The plum is a fruit so much in demand, and brings such good prices that it is worth an effort to cultivate it successfully. The best varieties are, for eating, the Washington, Coe's Golden Drop, Green Gage, Imperial Gage, Lombard, Smith's Orleans, Prince's Yellow Gage, Purple Gage, Imperial Ottoman, Jefferson, Bradshaw, Lawrence Gage, McLaughlin, Howard's Favorite, Purple Favorite, Schuyler Gage, Columbia, Duane's Purple, Huling's Superb, Monroe, Peach Plum, and White Magnum Bonum Plum. Several of these are also good market plums, particularly the Washington, Jefferson, Coe's Golden Drop, and the Green and Imperial Gages. But the market plum, *par excellence*, is the Damson, and an excellent plum it is.

QUINCES are not so largely cultivated as they should be. They are a valuable fruit and easily raised. The "Orange" variety is the best. They should be set in rather stiff and moist soils, well manured, and, if possible, near a stream, or else in the vicinity of the house, where they can be treated to frequent doses of soap-suds. They will do best to be sheltered from high winds, and from exposure to the north or northeast storms and winds. Set them eight feet apart and bandage the stem with muslin or cloth as far down in the ground as possible, so that the roots may start lower down. Let the bandage run six or eight inches above the ground, and pile the soil compactly about it to a depth of two inches or more, and renew this every spring. This will keep the borers away. The quince yields very beautifully when in a healthy condition.

For the culture of the grape, strawberry, raspberry, blackberry, currant, and gooseberry, we must refer our readers to the numer-

ous special treatises on those subjects, as each is entitled to a volume by itself. The grape is fast becoming, in many sections, one of our most important and valuable fruits, both for the table and for the production of wine. As yet, except in California, little or nothing has been done in making raisins from our grapes, and indeed most of them are not adapted to that purpose. The range of climate renders the cultivation of a great number of varieties not only possible but advantageous, and from the native and seedling grapes of the Southern States, as well as from the introduction of many of the varieties of Southern Europe, we are destined soon to have as rich and luscious fruit as is to be found anywhere in the world, the true raisin grapes of commerce, and wines, which in body, fruitiness, and strength will equal the European ports, sherries, and Bordeaux wines, while the northern vineyards yield a pleasant table grape, and pleasanter, though no more alcoholic, wines than those of the Rhine. In California there are already in cultivation every choice grape known in Europe, as well as our best American varieties.

The small fruits have generally received so much attention that we grow better strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, currants, and gooseberries than can be found in any European markets, and while the best of these are not so profitable for market purposes as some of the inferior varieties—the Wilson strawberry, for instance, proving a better fruit for market than most of the other varieties, which are greatly superior to it in flavor and perfection—yet there is no limit short of perfection to which our horticulturists have not attained.

All farmers who live within a moderate distance, say 100 miles, of a large city, will find it to their account, if they have a rich and easily-tilled soil, in devoting a portion of it, from five to fifteen acres, to the purpose of market gardening, having their hot-beds, by which they can force plants, so as to have vegetables, or, as the farmers about New York say, “garden-truck,” in market early; and those who are still farther off, in a warm climate, and with ready means of transportation, can to great advantage raise early vegetables to supply the New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Cincinnati, St. Louis, or Chicago markets. Everything depends upon being early in the market with this produce.

Potatoes, beets, turnips, squashes, tomatoes, spinage, kale, cab-

bage, cauliflower, cucumbers, beans, peas, corn, everything, in short, in the way of vegetables for the table, which can be brought into market two, three, or four weeks before the usual time, is sure to bring fabulous prices. A clergyman of our acquaintance, in a little garden of two acres, on the Hudson, about 55 miles above New York, cleared in 1871 two thousand and eleven dollars and sixty-nine cents by skilful market gardening.

Dairy.—The milk in the dairy is very liable to absorb any smell of decaying vegetables, fish, or meats which may be in the vicinity. To prevent this, the best plan is to have, in saucers or other dishes around the dairy, some of them higher than the milk-pans, quantities of finely powdered charcoal. This, when fresh, will absorb ninety times its own volume of ammonia or other gases, and they can be expelled again by heat, and the charcoal will be as efficacious as before.

SUGGESTIONS ON BUTTER-MAKING. 1. *Working the Butter.*—The butter should not be too warm nor too cool for working. A good test is to plunge the butter-laddle or working paddle in boiling water for a few moments; then cool it perfectly in cold water; then, if the butter is warm enough for the paddle to pass through it without difficulty and without crumbling, and hard enough to cut clean and smooth without a particle adhering to the paddle, it is in the right condition to work.

As the butter is composed of minute globules which should not be broken, as, if they are, butter becomes sticky and greasy, and has a dull appearance and a tendency to become rancid, it follows that it should be worked with tender and gentle, yet firm pressure, and not by mashing and grinding it against the sides of the bowl. When the butter becomes sticky and greasy in working, you may be sure that it has been overworked.

Butter should not be worked perfectly dry. When ready to pack it should have a very slight moisture about it, a sort of insensible transpiration of the clear brine which has been worked off, and enough of this should remain in the butter, so that, when a trier is thrust into it, a drop or two of brine will ooze out around it, and the trier will be slightly wet, as if by a light dew.

Butter, when rancid, may be restored by washing it well with good new milk, and then with cold spring water. The butyric acid, on the presence of which the rancidity depends, is soluble

in fresh milk, and may be removed by it. Another method is to put a teaspoonful of powdered nitre (saltpetre) and as much fine table-salt in a quart of clear cold water, let it dissolve, and then work the butter or wash it thoroughly in this. The quantity of nitre may be less if the butter is but slightly rancid.

There are various rules for packing butter for the markets. If it is to be kept through the winter, it should be put down in September or October, in oaken or ash tubs or pails, perfectly solid, so as to make the surface perfectly flat; on this spread a clean coarse cloth (linen is best), and strew fine salt over it. Some advise to wet the salt, so as to make a brine. If the butter is put up from a single dairy and by a skilful butter-worker, it may be put up in rolls, each roll being wound in a thin coarse cloth, dipped in a brine made for the purpose, and the whole packed so snugly in a cheese-box that it will not shake about. Such butter will often keep well through the season, and it is more attractive than in tubs. But it should not be trusted unless all from one dairy and all worked alike. There are butter-makers in the vicinity of Philadelphia who sell only butter on which they have placed their stamp, and whose butter has so high a reputation that it never brings less than a dollar a pound.

CHEESE is now so generally made in cheese-factories that there is very little inducement to go to the expense of making it at home, when the factory product is better and made with less trouble. What is known as *Dutch* or *pot-cheese* can, however, be made readily by any farmer's wife who keeps two or three cows. The milk is allowed to sour and become loppered or thick, when it is gently heated, which facilitates the separation of the whey. The curds are then gathered up, salted, or otherwise seasoned to suit the taste, and pressed in small moulds, or formed with the hand into suitable shape, when it is ready for the table and may be used immediately. In cool weather, when milk does not readily thicken, the sour milk may be put in a suitable vessel set in hot water, over the range or cooking stove. The milk is then stirred for a few minutes, when the whey will begin to separate, and it is then removed and another batch may be treated in the same manner.

SHADE-TREES AND TREES FOR FENCING AND FUEL.—“Aye be sticking down a tree,” said an old Scotch farmer, “it will grow

while ye are sleepin'." Our friends who are cultivating farms on the prairies or on the plains should remember this. It seems to be a well-settled fact that the growth of trees on the arid plains on the Eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains does increase the amount of rain-fall. They are likewise of great value for timber, for fencing, and for fuel. Adobes and dug-outs are not the most wholesome or convenient of dwellings, and, though the pioneers may make-shift to live in them, their children will not, and ought not. Meanwhile, lumber and timber are costly articles to transport long distances, and it is easy, even on these plains, to grow your own timber. The ailanthus, the locust, the willow, the buckeye, and the peach-tree will grow on any soil, and the maple on most. In seven years the ailanthus grows to be a foot through, and the locust and the peach nearly as rapidly. The peach, moreover, will yield fruit in three years—good, bad, or indifferent—you take your choice on that; but you have the tree.

The black-walnut and the butternut are also trees of rapid growth, as is the chestnut, when it will grow at all. All these trees yield very serviceable wood; that of the ailanthus, locust, and chestnut, and black-walnut, is very durable. Experiments made within the past four or five years render it certain that most of these trees will grow from the seed, without irrigation, on the plains of Western Kansas and Nebraska, and Eastern Colorado, and it is not yet proved that they will not do well even in Arizona and N. W. Texas.

SECTION III.

CHOICE RECIPES FOR THE HOUSEHOLD.

WE have selected under this head only those which would be of the most service to housekeepers. The great number of "Books of Recipes," "Household Economies," "Housekeeper's Guides," etc., etc., in circulation, while it renders the devotion of any great space to this department unnecessary, requires also greater care to avoid the introduction of common-place and widely-known recipes.

To neat housekeepers, one of the most annoying things which can happen is to have bed, table, and wearing linen or dress goods

stained with ink, iron rust, or iron mould. Various recipes have been given for the removal of these stains. The simplest and most effectual we have seen are these, both based on substantially the same principles: For the ink-stains, melt a small piece of pure tallow, and dip the spotted linen in it, let it lie for a few minutes, then wash out with soap and hot water. For iron mould or iron stains, rub the spots over with butter, and then apply a little potash moistened with water, and rub hastily, washing out afterwards with soft hot water. This is better than lemon-juice and salt, or oxalic acid, as it does not injure the strength of the fabric. The same process is equally applicable to cotton, or dress goods, though sometimes the colors of the latter may be slightly affected. Marking ink, when necessary, can be discharged by touching the marks with a saturated solution of cyanide of potassium, and then washing out with cold water. But this is seldom necessary, and the cyanide is so poisonous a drug that it is not well to keep it in the house.

Fruit stains may be removed from linen, if they are recent, by applying table-salt to them, moistening it a little, if necessary, and after letting it remain for some minutes, washing off lightly in warm water without soap.

To remove *grease spots* from woolen, silk, linen, or cotton goods, the following preparation is the best: Benzine, 4 ounces; alcohol, 95 per cent., one ounce; sulphuric ether, 24 drops; spirits of hartshorn, 12 drops; mix, shake well, and apply with a soft woolen rag. When the grease is removed, wash off in cold water with a soft brush the woolen or silk, first stretching it carefully on a flat surface; the cotton or linen may be washed in the ordinary way. This is better, more effectual, and less injurious to the articles than the famous *Javelle water*, which is only a solution of bleaching powder and carbonate of potassa, with a little muriatic acid added.

To Clear Muddy Water.—When the water of a spring becomes soiled from heavy rains, or the washing of clay, etc., into it, put into the spring, if you can get at it, or into the water before using, if you cannot, a little chloride of calcium, one part to one thousand of the water will be sufficient.

To Rid the House of Flies.—One of the best as well as least offensive methods of driving away these pests is to mix a half

teaspoonful of powdered black pepper, a teaspoonful of brown sugar, and a teaspoonful of cream well together on a small plate and leave it in a room where they are troublesome. They will soon abandon that room. Another method, which is very certain, is to sprinkle the rooms with dilute carbolic acid, one part of the acid to one hundred of water (the acid being first mixed with a little glycerine). This will drive them off; but the smell of the carbolic acid is offensive to many people. The kitchen may be cleared of them, if the floors and wood-work are washed with a suds of cresylic soap, but this is liable to the same objection.

To drive *mosquitoes* from a room where there are no mosquito-bars, evaporate a piece of gum-camphor of the size of a walnut over the candle or lamp, taking care that it does not catch fire; or burn a little myrrh in the room. The oil of pennyroyal in small quantities placed about the room will answer the same purpose.

Ink.—It is sometimes more convenient for the farmer to make his own ink, and with a good recipe he can produce a much better article than most of that sold in the ordinary shops. The following recipe is simpler and produces better ink than any other we know. Take an ounce and a half of logwood chips, picking out those which are perfect, and put a little more than a quart of water to them, and boil it down to a pint. Let it cool, then strain and add 17 or 18 grains of chromate of potash, and stir it briskly. It is ready for use at once, will not corrode steel pens, and will not fade or turn brown, and has no sediment.

2. RECIPES FOR COOKING.

Solon Robinson's Directions how to Cook a Ham.—"First let the water become lukewarm; then put in the ham. Let it simmer or boil lightly for four or five hours—five is better than four—then take it out and shave off the rind. Rub granulated sugar into the whole surface of the ham, as long as it can be made to receive it. Place the ham in a baking dish, and pour over it a bottle of champagne or prime cider. Baste occasionally with the juice and let it bake an hour in a gentle heat. A slice from a nicely cured ham, thus cooked, is enough to tempt a Jew."

Broiled Veal.—Work together a small piece of butter and a little flour in a new baking-pan; add cold water, and set it over the fire, sprinkling in salt and pepper. When the meat has been

on the gridiron a few moments, take it up, dip it into the gravy (before mentioned), and return it again to the gridiron. Repeat this process two or three times, until the meat is cooked, then pour the gravy over it, and serve. Veal is not as dry when cooked in this way.

Liver Cheese.—Boil a beef's liver, heart, and tongue; remove all the hard and sinewy parts, and chop the remainder fine; add to this half a pound of boiled pork, also chopped fine; season it well; then tie it in a cloth, or put it into a pan, and press it hard. After standing a few hours, it will come out in a solid cake, and is very nice to slice from, for eating at breakfast or supper.

Stewed Loin of Veal.—Take part of a loin of veal (the chump end will do); put into a large, thick, well-tinned iron saucepan, or into a stew-pan, about two ounces of butter, and shake it over a moderate fire until it begins to brown; flour the veal well all over; lay it in the sauce-pan, and when it is of a fine equal light brown, pour gradually in veal broth, gravy, or boiling water to nearly half its depth; add a little salt, one or two sliced carrots, a small onion or more, when the flavor is much liked, and a bunch of parsley; stew the veal very softly for an hour, or rather more, then turn it, and let it stew for nearly or quite another hour, or longer, should it not appear perfectly done. Dish the joint; skim all the fat from the gravy, and strain it over the meat; or keep the joint hot while it is rapidly reduced to a richer consistency.

Cooking Meats.—*Beefsteaks* should never be fried, but always broiled on a gridiron with narrow bars. The sirloin is the best cut for beefsteak, less dry than the porterhouse, and if cut at the right point, from a fine fat ox, is very fine eating. Never buy a round steak if you can help it. If you are compelled to do so, pound or bruise it till it is tender, and butter well. A *beefsteak* should always be broiled over a quick, hot fire, and the less it is cooked, so it is thoroughly heated through, the more nutritious and digestible it will be. *Roast beef* requires a slow, steady, but not too hot fire, but this too is the better for being rare done.

Savory Beef.—Take a shin of beef from the hind quarter, saw it into four pieces, put it in a pot, and boil until the meat and gristle drop from the bones; chop the meat very fine, put in a dish and season it with a little salt, pepper, clove, and sage to

your taste ; pour in the liquor in which the meat was boiled and set it away to harden, putting it under some pressure as the liquid coagulates. Cut it in slices and eat cold.

Stewed Calf's Head.—Take a fine large calf's head ; empty it ; wash it clean, and boil it till it is quite tender in just water enough to cover it. Then carefully take out the bones, without spoiling the appearance of the head. Season it with a little salt and cayenne, and a grated nutmeg. Pour over it the liquor in which it has been boiled, adding a gill of vinegar, and two table-spoonfuls of capers, or of green nasturtium seeds, that have been pickled. Let it stew very slowly for half an hour. Have ready some force-meat balls, made of minced veal, suet, grated bread-crumbs, grated lemon-peel, and shredded sweet marjoram, adding a beaten yolk of egg to bind the other ingredients together. Put in the force-meat balls, and stew, slowly, a quarter of an hour longer, adding some butter, rolled in flour, to enrich the gravy. Send it to table hot.

Meat or Sausage Rolls.—Make one pound puff paste ; roll it out to the thickness of half an inch, or rather less, and divide it into eight, ten, or twelve squares, according to the size the rolls are intended to be. Place some sausage-meat on one-half of each square ; wet the edges of the paste, and fold it over the meat ; slightly press the edges together and trim them neatly with a knife ; brush the rolls over with the yolk of an egg, and bake them in a well-heated oven for about half an hour, or longer, should they be very large. The remains of cold chicken and ham, minced and seasoned, as also cold veal or beef, make very good rolls.

DESSERTS.

Norfolk Dumplings.—Mix thoroughly a teaspoonful of Borwick's baking powder and a little salt with a pound of flour in a dry state ; then pour on gradually about half a pint of cold water or milk ; mix quickly into a dough, to be put immediately, in small pieces, into boiling water, and boiled twenty minutes without taking the lid off. They eat very like dough dumplings when properly made. Serve with milk sauce.

Baked Apples.—Baked apples are very nice filled in with plain custard, also with rice and corn-flour, dressed as for a pudding, and poured in where the cores were ; or take a piece of quince

cheese and place it in when the apples are about half done. Blackberry jam, also, is very nice, but must not be put in till the apples are done, or it spreads over the dish too much.

Puff Paste.—One pound of flour, and one pound of butter; rub in very lightly with your hands one-third of the butter, and then add water, and mix to a paste. Roll it out, spread in the centre the rest of the butter, and fold in six folds; roll out again; repeat this three times; lastly, fold in three, roll out once more, and it is ready for use.

Apple Snow.—Stew some apples till tender; sweeten to taste; mash them up, and place them in the centre of a dish; round and over them place a layer of boiled rice, dry; whisk the whites of three or four eggs until quite light and frothy; cover the whole with this froth; sprinkle over it powdered sugar, coloring a little of it with cochineal.

Baked Vermicelli Pudding.—Simmer four ounces of vermicelli in a pint of milk for ten minutes, then put in a gill of cream, a spoonful of powdered cinnamon, four ounces warm butter, the same of sugar, and the yolks of four eggs, well beaten. Bake in a dish without a lining.

The following eminently practical and sensible suggestions on cake-making, and the accompanying recipes, we copy from Marion Harland's (Mrs. Terhune's) "Common Sense in the Household," a work which ought to be in the hands of every housekeeper.

Cake.—Use none but the best materials for making cake. If you cannot afford to get good flour, dry white sugar, and the best family butter, make up your mind to go without your cake, and eat plain bread with a clear conscience.

There are no intermediate degrees of quality in eggs. I believe I have said that somewhere else, but it ought to be repeated just here. They should be, like Cæsar's wife, above suspicion. A tin whisp or whip is best for beating them. All kinds of cake are better for having the whites and yolks beaten separately. Beat the former in a large shallow dish until you can cut through the froth with a knife, leaving as clear and distinct an incision as you would in a solid substance. Beat the yolks in an earthenware bowl until they cease to froth, and thicken as if mixed with flour. Have the dishes *cool*—not too cold. It is hard to whip whites stiff in a warm room.

Stir the butter and sugar to a cream. Cakes often fail because this rule is not followed. Beat these as faithfully as you do the eggs, warming the butter very slightly if hard. Use only a silver or wooden spoon in this as in other parts of your work. I have heard of silver egg-whips, but they are not likely to come into general use, except where the mistress makes all the cake, puddings, etc.

Do not use fresh and stale milk in the same cake. It acts as disastrously as a piece of new cloth in an old garment. Sour milk makes a spongy cake; sweet, one closer in grain.

Study the moods and tenses of your oven carefully before essaying a loaf of cake. Confine your early efforts to tea-cakes and the like. Jelly-cake, baked in shallow flat tins, is good practice during the novitiate. Keep the heat steady, and as good at bottom as top.

Streaks in cake are caused by unskilful mixing, too rapid or unequal baking, or sudden decrease in heat before the cake is quite done.

Don't delude yourself, and maltreat those who are to eat your cake, by trying to make soda do the whole or most of the duty of eggs. Others have tried it before, with unfortunate results. If curiosity tempt you to the experiment, you had better allay it by buying some sponge-cake at the corner bakery.

Test whether a cake is done by running a clean straw into the thickest part. It should come up clean.

Do not leave the oven-door open, or change the cake from one oven to the other, except in extreme cases. If it harden too fast on the top, cover with paper. It should rise to full height before the crust forms.

Except for gingerbread, use none but white sugar.

Always sift the flour.

Be accurate in your weights and measures.

There is no short road to good fortune in cake-making. What is worth doing at all is worth doing well. There is no disgrace in not having time to mix and bake a cake. You may well be ashamed of yourself if you are too lazy, or careless, or hurried to beat your eggs, cream your butter and sugar, or measure your ingredients.

Cream your sugar and butter, measure milk, spices, etc., before

beginning work. For fruit-cake it is best to prepare the materials the day before. Let your icing dry thoroughly before wrapping up the cake.

Sift your flour before measuring, as all the following receipts are for sifted flour:

Pound Cake.—1 lb. flour; 1 lb. eggs; 1 lb. sugar; $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. butter; 1 glass brandy; 1 nutmeg; 1 teaspoonful mace.

Cream half the flour with the butter, and add brandy and spice. Beat the yolks until light, add the sugar, then the beaten whites and the rest of the flour alternately. When this is thoroughly mixed, put all together and beat steadily for half an hour.

If properly made and baked this is a splendid cake.

Washington Cake.—3 cups sugar; 2 cups butter; 5 eggs; 1 cup milk; 4 cups flour; 2 teaspoonfuls cream-tartar; 1 teaspoonful soda. Mix as usual and stir in, at the last, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. currants well washed and dredged; $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. raisins seeded and chopped fine, then floured; a handful of citron sliced fine; cinnamon, nutmeg to taste. Fruit-cake takes longer to bake than plain, and the heat must be kept steady.

Lincoln Cake.—1 lb. butter; 1 lb. sugar; 1 lb. flour; 6 eggs; 2 cups sour cream or milk; 1 grated nutmeg; 1 teaspoonful powdered cinnamon; tablespoonful rose-water; 1 teaspoonful soda dissolved in hot water, and stirred into the milk just before adding the latter to the cake.

Cream the butter and sugar, put with them the yolks, whipped light, then the cream and spice, next the flour, then the rose-water, and a double-handful of citron cut in slips and dredged; finally, the beaten whites of the eggs. Stir all well, and bake in a loaf or a “card,” using a square shallow baking-pan.

This is a good cake and keeps well.

New Year's Cake (very nice.)— $1\frac{1}{4}$ lb. sugar; 1 lb. butter; $\frac{1}{2}$ pint cold water; 2 eggs; $3\frac{1}{4}$ lbs. flour; 1 teaspoonful soda dissolved in hot water; 4 tablespoonfuls caraway seed sprinkled through the flour.

Rub the butter, or, what is better, chop it up in the flour; dissolve the sugar in the water; mix all well with the beaten eggs, cut in square cakes, or with an oval mould, and bake quickly.

Language of Flowers.

<i>Flowers.</i>	<i>Sentiments.</i>	<i>Flowers.</i>	<i>Sentiments.</i>
Amaranth—	Immortality.	Hazel—	Reconciliation.
Anemone—	Frailty.	Heliotrope—	Devotion.
Aster—	Beauty in Retirement.	Hollyhock—	Ambition.
Acacia—	Platonic Love.	Honeysuckle—	Fidelity.
Alyssum—	Worth beyond Beauty.	Hop—	Injustice.
Bachelor's Button—	Hope in Misery.	Ice-plant—	Your looks freeze me.
Balm—	Sweets of Social Intercourse.	Ivy—	I have found one true heart.
Balm of Gilead—	I am cured.	Jonquil—	Affection returned.
Balsam—	Impatience.	Lavender—	Acknowledgment.
Bay Leaf—	I change but in dying.	Lilac—	First emotion of Love.
Blue Bell—	Constancy.	Lily—	Purity.
Broome—	Neatness.	Locust—	Affection beyond the grave.
Burdock—	Importunity.	Marygold—	Contempt.
Chamomile—	Energy in Adversity.	Myrtle—	Love in Absence.
Candytuft—	Indifference.	Nightshade—	Dark Thoughts.
Cardinal Flower—	Distinction.	Oak—	Hospitality.
Carnation—	Pride.	Oleander—	Beware.
Catchfly—	A Snare.	Pea, Everlasting—	Wilt thou go ?
China Aster—	Your sentiments meet with a return.	Pea, Sweet—	Departure.
Chrysanthemum—	A heart left to desolation.	Peach-blossom—	I am your captive.
Cinquefoil—	Love, constant but hopeless.	Petunia—	Thou art less proud than they deem thee.
Columbine—	I cannot give thee up.	Phlox—	Our souls are united.
Corn—	Riches.	Pine—	Time and Faith.
Cowslip—	Native Grace.	Pink, White—	Lovely and pure Affec- tion.
Coreopsis—	Always Cheerful.	Pink, Red—	Woman's Love.
Cypress—	Disappointed Hopes.	Polyanthus—	Confidence.
Dahlia—	Elegance and Dignity.	Poppy—	Forgetfulness.
Daisy—	Beauty and Innocence.	Primrose, Evening—	I am more faith- ful than thou.
Dandelion—	Coquetry.	Rose-bud—	Confession of Love.
Elder—	Compassion.	Rose, Damask—	Bashful Love.
Evergreen—	Poverty and Worth.	Rose, Moss—	Superior Merit.
Fir—	Time.	Rose, White—	Too young to love.
Flowering Reed —	Confidence in Heaven.	Snapdragon—	Dazzling, but danger- ous.
Forget-me-not—	True Love.	Snowdrop—	I am not a summer friend.
Foxglove—	I am not ambitious for myself, but for you.	Sunflower—	Smile on me still.
Fuchsia—	Humble Love.	Sweet William—	Gallantry.
Geranium—		Thistle—	Never forget.
Rose—	Preference.	Tulip—	Beautiful eyes.
Scarlet—	Thou art changed.	Verbena—	Sensibility.
Silver-leafed—	Recall.	Violet—	Faithfulness.
Golden Rod—	Encouragement.	Wallflower—	Fidelity in misfortune.
Grape—	Charity.	Willow—	Forsaken.
Grass—	Submission.	Woodbine—	Fraternal Love.
Hawthorn—	Hope.	Yarrow—	A cure for the heart ache.

GEMS OF WISDOM.

GATHER instruction from thy youth up, so shalt thou find wisdom till thine old age.

Children, obey your parents ; honor thy father and mother.

A wise son heareth his father's instructions.

A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.

Knowledge is the treasure of the mind ; discretion the key.

The whole universe is your library ; conversation, living studies, and remarks upon them, your best tutors.

The conversation of wise men is the best academy of breeding and learning.

Courteous behavior and prudent communication are the most becoming ornaments to the young.

If you desire to be wiser, think not yourself wise enough. He that instructs one that thinks himself wise enough, hath a fool to his scholar ; he that thinks himself wise enough to instruct himself, hath a fool to his master.

The great business of man is to improve his mind, and govern his manners.

An industrious and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance than a great estate.

To become an able man in any profession, three things are necessary—nature, study, and practice.

There is a time when thou mayest say anything, and a time when thou mayest say something ; but there never will be a time when thou shouldst say all things.

Rise from table with an appetite, and you will not be likely to sit down without one.

It is the excellency of a great mind to triumph over all misfortunes and infelicities.

As self-preservation is the first prin-

ciple of nature, so care of yourselves and your own interests is the first part of wisdom.

Xenophon, when he received the unhappy news of his only son's untimely death, answered the messenger with a settled countenance. "I knew," said he, "that I begat him a mortal."

The virtue of prosperity is temperance ; the virtue of adversity is fortitude.

It is a Spanish maxim. He that loseth wealth, loseth much ; he who loseth a friend, loseth more ; but he who loseth his spirits, loseth all.

When I have an injury done me, I never set the beacon on fire, nor am I troubled : I consider who did it ; if my kinsman, he did it ignorantly ; if my friend, he did it against his will ; if my enemy, it is no more than I expected.

Pardon is a glorious kind of revenge. I think myself sufficiently revenged of my enemy if I pardon him.

Have not to do with any man in his passion, for men are not like iron, to be wrought upon when they are hot.

He that accustoms himself to buy superfluities, may ere long be obliged to sell his necessities.

Pride was not made for man, nor furious anger for any one that is born of a woman.

Watching for riches consumeth the flesh, and the care thereof driveth away sleep.

A good layer up makes a good layer out ; and a good sparer makes a good spender.

Money does no good till it is spread. There is no real use of riches, except it be in the distribution.

A wise man will desire no more than what he may get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and live contentedly with.

If money be not thy servant, it will be thy master.

A poor spirit is poorer than a poor purse.

Justice is the foundation of an everlasting fame, and there can be nothing commendable without it.

There is no man so contemptible but in distress requires pity.

If we well knew how little others enjoy, it would rescue the world from one sin--there would be no such thing as envy.

Never employ yourself to discern the faults of others, but be careful to mend and prevent your own.

If a jewel be right, no matter who says it is a counterfeit; if your conscience tells you that you are innocent, what do you care who tells the world that you are guilty.

Never speak ill of any man: if of a good man, it is impiety; if of a bad man, give him your prayers.

Let your discourse of others be fair; speak ill of nobody. To do it in his absence is the property of a coward, that stabs a man behind his back; if to his face, you add an affront to the scandal.

He that praises, bestows a favor, but he that detracts, commits a robbery, in taking from another what is justly his; every man thinks he deserves better than indeed he does.

Deride no man's deformities, but bless God they are not yours.

A good word is an easy obligation, but not to speak ill requires only our silence, which costs nothing.

There is an odious spirit in many persons, who are better pleased to detect a fault than to commend a virtue.

To detract from other men, and turn their disadvantages to our own profit, is more contrary to nature than death, poverty, or grief, or anything which can affect our bodies or circumstances.

When thou hast no observers, be afraid of thyself; what you are afraid to do before men, be afraid to think of before God.

In your worst estate, hope; in the best, fear; but in all, be circumspect:

Man is a watch, which must be looked to, and wound up every day.

Discontent is the greatest weakness of a generous soul; for many times it is so intent upon its unhappiness, that it forgets its remedies.

Hope will be your best antidote against all misfortune.

A good conscience seats the mind on a rich throne of lasting quiet.

Be rather confidently bold than foolishly timorous: he that in everything fears to do well, will, at length, do ill in all.

There is no greater instance of a weak and pusillanimous temper, than for a man to pass his whole life in opposition to his own sentiments, and not dare to be what he thinks he ought to be.

Fear is implanted in us as a preservative from evil.

Fear not that which cannot be avoided. It is extreme folly to make yourself miserable before your time, or to fear that which it may be will never come; or if it does, may possibly be converted into your felicity.

A man cannot be truly happy here, without a well-grounded hope of being happy hereafter.

Sorrow, when it is excessive, takes away fervor from piety, vigor from action, health from the body, light from reason, and repose from the conscience.

The expectation of future happiness is the best relief of anxious thoughts, the most perfect cure of melancholy, the guide of life, and the comfort of death.

Passion and reason are a kind of civil war within us, and as the one or the other hath dominion, we are either good or bad.

Some persons are above our anger, others below it; to contend with our superiors is indiscretion, and with our inferiors an indignity.

He who commands himself, commands the world too; and the more authority you have over others, the more command you must have over yourself.

It is more prudent to pass by trivial offences than to quarrel for them; by

the last you are even with your adversary, but by the first, above him.

Passion is a sort of fever in the mind, which always leaves us weaker than it found us.

Accustom not yourself to speaking overmuch, and before you speak, consider; let not your tongue run before reason and judgment bid it go; if the heart doth not premeditate, the tongue must necessarily precipitate.

Conquer your passion; it will be more glorious for you to triumph over your own heart, than it would be to take a citadel.

Defile not your mouth with swearing; neither use yourself to the naming of the Holy One.

He is wealthy enough that wanteth not. He is great enough that is his own master. He is happy enough that lives to die well.

Quietness and peace flourish where reason and justice govern; and true joy reigneth where modesty directs.

Restrain yourself from being too fiery and flaming in matter of argument—truth often suffers more from the heat of its defenders, than from the argument of its opposers. Nothing does reason more right than the coolness of those that offer it.

Vex not yourself when ill spoken of. Contumelies not regarded vanish; but repined at, argue either a puny soul, or a guilty conscience. The best answer to a slanderer is to answer nothing; and so to carry it, as though the adversary were rather to be despised than minded.

You should enterprise nothing without the advice of age; for though youth is fittest for action, yet age is best for counsel.

Passion makes them fools who otherwise are not so, and shows them to be fools who are.

They that laugh at everything, and they that fret at everything, are fools alike.

Plato, speaking of passionate persons, says: "They are like men who stand on their heads; they see all things the wrong way."

Anger comes sometimes upon us, but we go oftener to it; and instead

of rejecting it, we call it; yet it is a vice that carries with it neither pleasure nor profit, neither honor nor security.

Use not needlessly learned or hard words; he that affects to be thought learned is likely to be accounted a fool.

To be covetous of applause is a weakness; and self-conceit is the ordinary attendant of ignorance.

Vain-glorious men are the scorn of wise men, the admiration of fools, the idols of parasites, and the slaves of their own wants.

No man is content with his own condition, though it be the best; nor dissatisfied with his wit, though it be the worst.

Beauty without virtue is like a painted sepulchre, fair without, but within full of corruption.

Questions you should never be ashamed to ask, so long as you are ignorant. Ignorance is a shameful infirmity; and when justified, is the chiefest of follies.

It is the part of fools to be too sagacious in seeing the faults of other men, and ignorant of their own.

If you are subject to any secret folly, blab it not, lest you appear impudent; nor boast of it, lest you seem insolent; every man's vanity ought to be his greatest shame, and every man's folly ought to be his greatest secret.

He is a wise man that can avoid an evil; he is a patient man that can endure it; but he is a valiant man that can conquer it.

If you would not be thought a fool in others' conceit, be not wise in your own; he that trusts to his own wisdom proclaims his own folly.

Hypocrisy is the necessary burden of villany; affectation part of the chosen trappings of folly.

The vanity of human life is like a river, constantly passing away, and yet constantly coming on.

Some would be thought to do great things, who are but tools or instruments, like the fool that fancied he played upon the organ, when he only blew the bellows.

When men will not be reasoned out

of a vanity, they must be ridiculed out of it.

Learning is the only ornament and jewel of man's life, without which a man cannot attain to any preferment in the commonwealth. Learn, therefore, in your minority all commendable qualities.

A man of sense does not so much apply himself to the most learned writings, in order to acquire knowledge, as the most rational, to fortify his reason.

It is silly conceit, that men without languages are also without understanding: it is apparent in all ages, that some such have been even prodigies for ability; for it is not believed that Wisdom speaks to her disciples only in Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

The pains we take in books or arts, which treat of things remote from the use of life, is a busy idleness.

There is no necessity of being led through the several fields of knowledge; it will be sufficient to gather some of the fairest fruit from them all; and to lay up a store of good sense, sound reason, and solid virtue.

One philosopher is worth a thousand grammarians. Good sense and reason ought to be the umpire of all rules.

The most resplendent ornament of man is judgment; here is the perfection of his innate reason—here is the utmost power of reason joined with knowledge.

Knowledge will not be acquired without pains and application.

There is nothing good or evil but virtue or vice. What is the knowledge good for which does not direct and govern our lives?

Useful knowledge can have no enemies, except the ignorant; it cherishes youth, delights the aged, is an ornament in prosperity, and yields comfort in adversity.

True philosophy, says Plato, consists more in fidelity, constancy, justice, sincerity, and in the love of our duty, than in a great capacity.

Those who eat most are not always the fattest; so those who read much have not always the most knowledge.

He who lacks good sense is unhappy

in having learning; for he has thereby only more ways of exposing himself.

To have a portion in the world is a mercy; to have the world for a portion is a misery.

By suffering we may often avoid sinning, but by sinning we can never avoid suffering.

If you can live free from want, and have wherewithal to do good, care for no more.

Prefer the private approbation of the wise and good to the public acclamation of the multitude.

Seeing a man is more happy that hath nothing to lose than he that loses that which he hath, we should neither hope for riches, nor fear poverty.

Wisdom and virtue are two infallible specifics against all the crosses and accidents of human life.

It is a necessary, and should be an indispensable rule in life, to contract our desires to our circumstances, and whatever expectations we may have, to live within the compass of what we actually possess.

It is better to have a good conscience and be poor, than a bad one and be rich.

The rich man lives happily, so long as he uses his riches temperately; and the poor man who patiently endures his wants is rich enough.

Abundance is a trouble, want a misery, honor a burden, advancement dangerous, but competency happiness.

Whatsoever I desire, I always have, because I desire nothing but what I can have.

He that is not content in any state will be content in no state; for the fault is not in the thing, but in the mind.

The foundation of content must spring up in a man's own mind; and he who has so little knowledge of human nature as to seek happiness by changing anything but his own disposition, will waste his life in fruitless efforts, and multiply the griefs which he proposes to remove.

Must I be poor? I shall have company. Must I be banished? I'll think myself born there; and the way to heaven is alike in all places.

To be humble to superiors is a duty; to equals, courtesy; to inferiors, nobleness; to all, safety; fortune may begin a man's greatness, but it is virtue that must continue it.

Contentment is the truest riches, and covetousness the greatest poverty. He is not rich that has much, but he that has enough. That man is poor that covets more, and yet wants a heart to enjoy what he already has.

He is not poor that hath not much, but he who would have more. Want lies in wishing; he lacks most that longs most; none so rich as he that does not covet, but content: he hath all that desires nothing; he hath content, and content is all.

Esteemed wisdom is the greatest wealth, and content the highest bliss.

The utmost we can hope for in this world is contentment; if we aim at anything higher, we shall meet with nothing but grief and disappointment.

A contented mind is the greatest blessing a man can enjoy in this world.

Prosperity hath always been the cause of far greater evils to men than adversity.

Proud men never have friends; neither in prosperity, because they know nobody, nor in adversity, because then nobody knows them.

Adversity does not take from us our true friends; it only disperses those who pretend to be such.

Friendship is a sweet attraction of the heart towards the merit we esteem, or the perfections we admire; and produces a mutual inclination between two or more persons, to promote each other's interest, knowledge, virtue, and happiness.

There's nothing so common as pretences to friendship; though few know what it means, and fewer yet come up to its demand.

Of all felicities, how charming is that of a firm and gentle friendship! It sweetens our cares, softens our sorrows, and assists us in extremities; it is a sovereign antidote against calamities.

A true friend is not born every day;

it is best to be courteous to all—intimate with few.

Friendship improves happiness, and abates misery, by the doubling of our joy and dividing our grief.

Never condemn a friend unheard, or without letting him know his accuser or his crime.

There are two requisite qualities in the choice of a friend; he must be both a sensible and an honest man.

True friendship is one of the greatest blessings upon earth: it makes the cares and anxieties of life easy; provides us with a partner in every affliction to alleviate the burden, and is a sure resort against every accident and difficulty that can happen.

Select for your friend a virtuous person; a bad man can neither love long, nor be long beloved.

Every man is capable of being an enemy, but not a friend; few are in a condition to do good, but almost all of doing mischief.

A friend is a great comfort in solitude, an excellent assistant in business, and the best protection against injuries; he is a counsellor in difficulties, a confessor in all scruples, and a sanctuary in distress.

Do good to thy friend, that he may be more thy friend; and unto thy enemy, that he may become thy friend.

When you have made choice of your friend, extend all civilities to him; yet, in prudence, look upon your present friend as, in possibility, your future enemy.

He is a happy man who hath a friend in need; but he is more happy who has no need of a friend.

Be slow to choose a friend, and slower to change him; courteous to all, intimate with few.

A sure friend is best known in an adverse state; we know not whom to trust till after trial: there are some that will keep us company while it is clear and fair, who will be gone when the clouds gather. That is the only friendship which is stronger than death.

Make use of a friend with great caution; trust him not before you

know him well: for many that pretend to be friends use flattery as a mask to hide their hearts.

Never purchase friends by gifts, for if you cease to give, they will cease to love.

With three sorts of men enter into no serious friendship—the ungrateful man, the multiloquous man, and the coward; the first cannot prize thy favors, the second cannot keep thy counsel, the third cannot vindicate thy honor.

True friends are the whole world to one another; and he that is a friend to himself is also a friend to mankind. There is no relish in the possession of anything without a partner.

Nothing can impair perfect friendship, because truth is the only bond.

Wealth without friends is like life without health; the one an uncomfortable fortune—the other a miserable being.

A true friend unbosoms freely, advises justly, assists readily, adventures boldly, takes all patiently, defends courageously, and continues a friend unchangeably.

The commentary of a severe friend is better than the embellishments of a sweet-lipped flatterer.

A man may have a thousand intimate acquaintances, and not a friend among them all. If you have one friend, think yourself happy.

Complaisance renders a superior amiable, an equal agreeable, and an inferior acceptable; it smoothes distinctions, sweetens conversation, produces good nature and mutual benevolence, and makes every one in the company pleased with himself.

The love of society is natural; but the choice of our company is matter of prudence.

Keep company with persons above than below yourself; for gold in the same pocket with silver loseth both color and weight.

Be not of them that commence wit by blasphemy, and cannot be ingenious but by being impious.

If you meet with a person subject to infirmities, never deride them in him, but bless God that you have no

occasion to grieve for them in yourself.

He that is of courteous behavior is beloved of all men; but he that is of clownish manners is esteemed by none.

He that compliments with hearty wishes to one's face, and afterwards degrades his reputation, is a double-tongued hypocrite.

Often ask than decide questions; this is the way to better your knowledge; your ears teach you, not your tongue; so long as you are ignorant, be not ashamed to be instructed; if you cannot satisfy yourself, seek satisfaction elsewhere: all know not alike, and none all things; you may help another and he you.

Vicious company is as dangerous as an infectious and contagious distemper, and therefore ought to be carefully and industriously avoided.

Our conversation should be such that youth may find improvement, women modesty, the aged respect, and men civility.

He whose honest freedom makes it his virtue to speak what he thinks, makes it his necessity to think what is good.

It is a sure method of obliging in conversation to show a pleasure in giving attention.

As men of sense say much in few words, so the half-witted have a talent of talking much, and yet say nothing.

If you think twice before you speak once, you will speak twice the better for it.

Brave actions are the substance of life, and good sayings the ornament.

Good-nature is more agreeable in conversation than wit.

Discretion of speech is more than eloquence.

It is an excellent rule, to be observed in all disputes, that men should give soft words and hard arguments; that they should not so much strive to vex as to convince an enemy.

The deepest waters are the most silent; empty vessels make the greatest sound, and tinkling symbols the worst music. They who think least commonly speak most.

If incivility proceeds from pride, it deserves to be hated; if from brutishness, it is only contemptible.

Excess of ceremony shows want of breeding. That civility is best which excludes all superfluous formality.

A good and generous man is happy within himself, and independent upon Fortune; kind to his friend; temperate to his enemy; religiously just; indefatigably laborious; and discharges every duty with a constancy and congruity of action.

Have so much of a generous soul in you as not to desert that which is just, but to own it.

There is nothing easier than to deceive a good man: he that never lies easily believes, and he that never deceives confides much. To be deceived is not always a sign of weakness, for goodness sometimes is the cause.

He that easeth the miserable of their burden shall hear many blessing him; fill the poor with food, and you will never want treasure.

That man is of a base and ignoble spirit that only lives for himself.

That man enjoys a heaven upon earth whose mind moves in charity, rests in Providence, and turns upon the poles of truth and wisdom.

Virtue is an ornament to all persons, and no part of beauty is wanting to them that are endowed with it.

Men of the noblest dispositions think themselves happiest when others share with them in their happiness.

Emulation is a noble passion, as it strives to excel by raising itself, and not by depressing another.

It is not in the power of a good man to refuse making another happy, where he has both ability and opportunity.

No character is more glorious, none more attractive of universal admiration and respect, than that of helping those who are in no condition to help themselves.

It is better to be of the number of those who need relief than of those who want heart to give it.

No object is more pleasing to the eye than the sight of a man whom you have obliged; nor any music so

agreeable to the ear as the voice of one that owns you for his benefactor.

He that is noble-minded has the same concern for his own fortune that every wise man ought to have, and the same regard for his friend that every good man really has.

Mark Antony, when depressed, and at an ebb of fortune, cried out that he had lost all except what he had given away.

If you would borrow anything a second time, use it well the first, and return it speedily.

Never communicate that which may prejudice when discovered, and not benefit your friend when he knows it.

Never forget the kindness which others do for you; never upbraid others with the courtesies which you do for them.

Let no one be weary of rendering good offices; for by obliging others, we are really kind to ourselves.

No man ever was a loser by good works, for though he may not be immediately rewarded, yet, in process of time, some happy emergency or other occurs to convince him that virtuous men are the darlings of Providence.

As to the matter of gratitude, and ingratitude, there never was any man yet so wicked as not to approve of the one, and detest the other, as the two things, the one to be the most esteemed, and the other the most abominated.

Friendship is the medicine for a misfortune; but ingratitude dries up the fountain of all goodness.

He who receives a good turn should never forget it; he who does one should never remember it.

Greatness may procure a man a tomb, but goodness alone can deserve an epitaph.

Honor and riches are the two wheels upon which the whole world is moved.

Desire not great riches, but such as you may get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and leave contentedly.

The folly of one man is the fortune of another, and no man prospers so suddenly as by the errors of others.

Reputation, honor, and preferment

are gained, retained, and maintained by humility, discretion, and sincerity.

The greater a man is in power above others, the more he ought to excel them in virtue.

It is not the place that maketh the person, but the person that maketh the place honorable.

Title and ancestry render a good man more illustrious, but an ill one more contemptible. Vice is infamous, though in a prince, and virtue honorable, though in a peasant.

Say little of persons that you can neither commend without envy, nor dispraise without danger.

Praise no man too liberally before his face, nor censure any man severely behind his back.

Wisdom, virtue, and valor have a natural right to govern.

Reputation is a great inheritance; it begetteth opinion (which ruleth the world); opinion, riches; riches, honor: it is a perfume that a man carrieth about him, and leaveth wherever he goes; and it is the best heir of a man's virtue.

The shortest way to attain reputation is that of merit; if industry be founded on merit, it is the true way of obtaining it.

The gaining of reputation is but the revealing of our virtue and worth to the best advantage.

It is more difficult to repair a credit that is once shaken, than to keep that flourishing which was never blasted.

Reputation is like fire when you have kindled it—you may easily preserve it; but if once you extinguish it, you will not easily kindle it again, at least not make it burn so bright as before.

Nature produces merit; virtue carries it to perfection; and fortune gives it the power of acting.

Be careful how you receive praise from men; from good men, neither avoid it nor glory in it; from bad men, neither desire it nor expect it.

Clear and round dealing is the honor of man's nature; hate nothing but what is dishonest, fear nothing but what is ignoble, and love nothing but what is just and honorable.

Praise nothing but what is worthy of commendation.

Speak of yourself as seldom as may be. If you praise yourself it is arrogance; if you dispraise it is folly.

Some poor men are undervalued, because worth nothing; and some rich men overvalued, though nothing worth.

Virtue and vice divide the whole world betwixt them; the one hath the greater part, but the other is the more desirable: this maketh miserable, but that happy; the former affords true pleasure, but the latter procures certain misery.

Virtuous persons are by all good men openly revered, and even silently by the bad.

It is better that a man's own works, than that another man's words, should praise him.

Flatter not, nor be thou flattered.

The luxurious live to eat and drink, but the wise and temperate eat and drink to live.

Money in your purse will credit you; wisdom in your head adorn you; but both in your necessity will serve you.

A seasonable gathering and a reasonable spending, make a good house-keeping.

Our life is like a comedy; the breakfast is the prologue, a dinner the interlude, a supper the epilogue.

The more simple the diet the better the child.

Gluttony kills more than the sword; for from hence proceed sloth, debauchery, heaviness of mind, and the dissolution of all virtues, with prodigality, and an innumerable long train of diseases—even death itself.

Immoderate pleasures shorten men's days more than the best medicaments can prolong them. The poor are seldom sick for the want of food than the rich are by the excess of it. Meats that are too relishing, and which create an immoderate appetite, are rather a poison than a nutriment. Medicines in themselves are really mischievous, and destructive of nature, and ought only to be used on pressing occasions; but the grand

medicine, which is always useful, is sobriety, temperance in pleasure, tranquillity of mind, and bodily exercise; in this the blood is sweetened and in good temperament, and all superfluous humors are dissipated.

Riches beget pride, pride impatience, impatience revenge, revenge war, war poverty, poverty humility, humility patience, patience peace, and peace riches.

Riches, beauty, honor, strength, or any other worldly good that we have enjoyed and is past, do but grieve us: that which is present doth not satisfy; that which may be hoped for, as future, is altogether uncertain; what folly or madness, then, it is to trust any of them!

The shortest way to be rich is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires.

Wisdom is better without an inheritance, than an inheritance without wisdom.

A great fortune in the hands of a fool is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

Let pleasure be ever so innocent, the excess is always criminal.

Pleasures unduly taken enervate the soul, make fools of the wise, and cowards of the brave. A libertine life is not a life of liberty.

Aristippus said he liked no pleasure but that which concerned a man's true happiness.

Avoid gaming; for, among many other evils which attend it, are these:—Loss of time; loss of reputation; loss of health; loss of fortune; loss of temper; ruin of families; defrauding of creditors; and what is frequently the effect of it, the loss of life, both temporal and eternal.

There needs no train of servants, no pomp or equipage, to make good our passage to heaven; but the graces of an honest mind, directed by a true faith, will serve us on the way, and make us happy at our journey's end.

Marriage should be considered as the most solemn league of perpetual friendship—a state from which artifice and concealment are to be ban-

ished forever, and in which every act of dissimulation is a breach of faith.

No woman is capable of being beautiful who is not incapable of being false.

It is treason against the law of love and of God, for any one to marry unless they wed; that is, unless they love, and be true to their love.

I would not advise you to marry a woman for her beauty; for beauty is like summer fruits, which are apt to corrupt, and are not lasting.

There is a great difference between a portion and a fortune with your wife; if she be not virtuous, let her portion be ever so great, she is no fortune to you.

It is not the lustre of gold, the sparkling of diamonds and emeralds, nor the splendor of the purple tincture, that adorns or embellishes a woman; but gravity, discretion, humility, and modesty.

Where love is, there is no labor; and if there is labor the labor is loved.

Love ever what is honest, as most lovely; and detest what is the contrary, as most detestable.

Nothing can atone for the want of modesty and innocence; without which beauty is ungraceful, and quality contemptible.

The plainer the dress, the greater lustre hath beauty. Virtue is the greatest ornament, and good sense the best equipage.

An inviolable fidelity, good humor, and complacency of temper in a wife, outlive all the charms of a fine face, and make the decays of it invisible.

He who gets a good husband for his daughter hath gained a son; and he who meets with a bad one hath lost a daughter.

Suspect a tale-bearer, and never trust him with thy secrets who is fond of entertaining thee with another's. No wise man will put good liquor into a leaky vessel.

There is no crime more infamous than the violation of truth.

All men must acknowledge lying to be one of the most scandalous sins that can be committed between man and man—a crime of a deep dye, and

of an extensive nature, leading to innumerable sins; for lying is practised to deceive, to injure, betray, rob, destroy, and the like. Lying, in this sense, is the concealing of all other crimes, the sheep's clothing upon the wolf's back, the Pharisee's prayer, the harlot's blush, the hypocrite's paint, the murderer's smile, the thief's cloak, and Judas's kiss. In a word, it is mankind's darling sin, and the devil's distinguished characteristic.

Truth is not only a man's ornament, but his instrument; it is the great man's glory, and the poor man's stock. A man's truth is his livelihood, his recommendation, his letters of credit.

Lying is a sin destructive to society; for there is no trade where there is no trust, and no trust where there is no truth; and yet this cursed trade of lying creeps into all trades, as if there was no living without lying; but sure it is, we had better be losers than liars, for he sells a dear bargain, indeed, that sells his conscience with his commodity.

Let this be always your rule:—if it is not decent, never do it; if it is not true, never speak it.

There is nothing, said Plato, so delightful as the hearing or speaking of truth. For this reason, there is no conversation so agreeable as that of the man of integrity, who hears without any intention to betray, and speaks without any intention to deceive.

An honest man is believed without an oath, for his reputation swears for him.

There are lying books as well as lying words; dissembling smiles, deceiving signs, and even a lying silence.

All a man can get by lying and dissembling is, that he shall not be believed when he speaks the truth.

Nothing is more noble, nothing more venerable than fidelity; faithfulness and truth are the most sacred excellencies and endowments of the human mind.

A hypocrite is under perpetual constraint; and what a torment must it be for a man always to appear different from what he really is.

Beware of drunkenness, lest all good men beware of you; where drunkenness reigns, there reason is an exile, virtue a stranger, God an enemy, blasphemy is wit, oaths are rhetoric, and secrets are proclamations.

Of all vices, take heed of drunkenness; other vices are but the fruits of disordered affections—this disorders, nay, banishes reason; other vices but impair the soul—this demolishes her two chief faculties, the understanding and the will; other vices make their own way—this makes way for all vices. He that is a drunkard is qualified for all vice.

It is an ill thing for a man not to know the gauge of his own stomach, nor to consider that men do many things in their drink that they are ashamed of when sober.

For everything you buy or sell, let or hire, make an exact bargain at first; and be not put off to an hereafter by one that says to you—"we shall not disagree about trifles."

He that would have his business well done must either do it himself, or see the doing it.

He that follows his recreation when he should be minding his business, is likely, in a little time, to have no business to follow.

It is the great art and philosophy of life, to make the best of the present, whether it be good or bad; and to bear the one with resignation and patience, and enjoy the other with thankfulness and moderation.

Make good use of time, if you love eternity: reflect that yesterday cannot be recalled; to-morrow cannot be insured; to-day is only yours, which, if you procrastinate, you lose; which lost, is lost forever; one day present is worth two to come.

The story of Melancthon affords a striking lecture on the value of time, which was, that whenever he made an appointment, he expected not only the hour, but the minute to be fixed, that the day might not run out in the idleness of suspense.

After you have used faithful diligence in your lawful calling, perplex not your thoughts about the

issue and success of your endeavors.

Diligence alone is a fair fortune, and industry a good estate. Idleness doth waste a man as insensibly as industry doth improve him. You may be a younger brother for your own fortune, but industry will make you an heir.

Rise early to your business, learn good things, and oblige good men: these are three things you will never repent of.

Time is the most precious, and yet the most brittle jewel we have: it is what every man bids largely for when he wants it, but squanders most lavishly when he has it.

The bow that is always bent will suffer a great abatement in the strength of it; and so the mind of man will be too much subdued, and humbled, and wearied, should it be always intent upon the cares and business of life, without the allowance of something whereby it may divert and recreate itself. But then, as no man uses to make a meal of sweetmeats, so we must take care that we be not excessive and immoderate in the pursuit of those pleasures we have made choice of.

The loss of wealth may be regained, of health recovered, but the loss of precious time can never be recalled.

When you go upon business, consider what you have to do; when you return, examine what you have done.

As many days as we pass without doing some good, are so many days entirely lost.

Let your recreations be manly, moderate, seasonable, and lawful; the use of recreation is to strengthen your labor and sweeten your rest.

He that lives close, lives quiet; he fears nobody, of whom nobody is afraid; he that stands below upon the firm ground, needs not fear falling.

Few are thanked for advice which they are forward to give.

Directly contradict none, except such as deal in bold and groundless assertions.

Beware of strangers, and behave

with caution and reserve in mixed companies.

Set bounds to your zeal by discretion, to error by truth, to passion by reason, to divisions by charity.

If your means suit not with your ends, pursue those ends which suit your means.

It is easier to give counsel than to take it; wise men think they do not need it, and fools will not take it.

In your discourse take heed what you speak, and to whom you speak, how you speak, and when you speak; what you speak, speak truly; when you speak, speak wisely; a fool's heart is in his tongue, but a wise man's tongue is in his heart.

Disdain not your inferior in the gifts of fortune, for he may be your superior in the gifts of the mind.

Entertain charity, and seek peace with all men; be helpful to your friends, and kind to strangers.

Men ought to be more considerate in writing than in speaking, because a rash and indiscreet word may be corrected presently; but that which is written can neither be denied nor amended.

Omit no opportunity of doing good, and you will find no opportunity for doing ill.

In marriage, prefer the person before wealth; virtue before beauty; and the mind before the body: then you have wife, a friend, and a companion.

Insult none over misery, nor deride infirmity.

If you are disposed to be merry, have a special care to three things:—first, that your mirth be not against religion; secondly, that it be not against charity; thirdly, that it be not against chastity.

Keep innocency, 'tis the greatest felicity—and a good conscience, for 'tis a continual feast: this is the only music which makes a merry heart: this makes the prisoner sing when the jailer trembles.

Keep your tongue and keep your friend; for few words cover much wisdom, and a fool, being silent, is thought wise.

In giving, let your object be the necessitous and deserving; your end, their advantage, not your own praise; and your guide, your circumstances and exigencies.

Blame not before thou hast examined the truth; understand first, and then rebuke.

Piety is the best profession; honesty the best policy; vice its own punishment; and virtue its own reward.

They that deserve nothing should be content with anything.

There are two sorts of persons scarce to be comforted, viz., a rich man, when he finds himself dying; and a beauty, when she sees her charms fading.

No man can be provident of his time, that is not prudent in the choice of his company.

A contented mind is of more worth than all the treasures of both the Indies; and he that is master of himself, in an innocent and homely retreat, enjoys all the wealth and curiosities of the universe.

A just man should account nothing more precious than his word, nothing more venerable than his faith, and nothing more sacred than his promise.

Time, patience, and industry are the three grand masters of the world.

A sound faith is the best divinity; a good conscience the best law; and temperance the best physic.

No man has a thorough taste of prosperity to whom adversity never happened.

Civility is a kind of charm that attracts the love of all men; and too much is better than to show too little.

The way to live easy is to mind your own business, and leave others to take care of theirs.

We can make choice of our meats, why not of our words too? We can examine what goes into our mouths, and why not what comes out of them as well? For the latter is more dangerous in a family than the former in the stomach.

The greatest punishment of an injury is the conviction of having done it, and no man suffers more than he

that is turned over to the pain of repentance.

It is for young men to gather knowledge, and for old men to use it.

Use law and physic only in cases of necessity.

It matters not from what stock we are descended, so long as we have virtue; for that alone is true nobility.

This world is like a lottery, wherein we must expect to meet with many unlucky chances.

There is no man that visits the world but will be put sometimes to straits and honest shifts; necessity teaches wisdom, while prosperity makes fools.

Reproof should not exhaust its powers upon petty failings; let it watch diligently against the incursions of vice, and leave foppery and futility to die of themselves.

If we would have the kindness of others, we must endure their follies. He who cannot persuade himself to withdraw from society, must be content to pay a tribute of his time to a multitude of tyrants—to the loiterer, who makes appointments which he never keeps; to the consulter, who asks advice which he never takes; to the boaster, who blusters only to be praised; to the complainer, who whines only to be pitied; to the protector, whose happiness is to entertain his friends with expectations which all but himself know to be vain; to the economist, who tells of bargains and settlements; to the politician, who predicts the fate of battles, and breach of alliances; to the usurer, who compares the different funds; and to the talker, who talks only because he loves to be talking.

The main of life is composed of small incidents and petty occurrences, of wishes for objects not remote, and grief for disappointments of no fatal consequence; of insect vexations which sting us, and fly away; and impertinences which buzz awhile about us, and are heard no more. Thus a few pains and a few pleasures are all the materials of human life; and of these the proportions are partly allotted by Providence, and partly left

to the arrangement of reason and choice.

To tell our own secrets is generally folly, but that folly is without guilt. To communicate those with which we are entrusted, is always treachery.

Suspicion is no less an enemy to virtue than to happiness. He that is already corrupt is naturally suspicious: and he that becomes suspicious will quickly be corrupt.

Many men mistake the love for the practice of virtue, and are not so much good men as the friends of goodness. Success and miscarriage have the same effects in all conditions. The prosperous are feared, hated, and flattered; and the unfortunate avoided, pitied, and despised.

To dread no eye, and to suspect no tongue, is the great prerogative of innocence—an exemption granted only to true virtue.

He that would pass the latter part of his life with honor and decency, must, when he is young, consider that he shall one day be old; and remember, when he is old, that he has once been young.

How little virtue could be practised if beneficence were to wait always for the most proper objects, and the noblest occasions—occasions that may never happen, and objects that may never be found.

Frugality may be termed the daughter of Prudence, the sister of Temperance, and the parent of Liberty.

How frequently are the honesty and integrity of a man disposed of by a smile or a shrug!—how many good and generous actions have been sunk into oblivion by a distrustful look, or stamped with the imputation of proceeding from bad motives, by a mysterious and seasonable whisper.

Miscellaneous Sentences,

ALPHABETICALLY DIGESTED, WHICH MAY BE RETAINED IN THE
MEMORIES OF YOUTH.

A GREAT man will not trample upon a worm, nor sneak to an emperor.

A clear conscience is a sure card.

A divided family can no more stand than a divided commonwealth.

A fault once denied, is twice committed.

A fool loseth his estate before he finds his folly.

A friend in need is a friend indeed.

A good name is rather to be chosen than great riches.

A gossip speaks ill of all, and all of her.

A guilty conscience never thinketh itself safe.

A jest driven too far, brings home hate or scorn.

A little wealth will suffice us to live well, and less to die happily.

A little wrong done to another is a great wrong done to ourselves.

A lie has no legs, but a scandal has wings.

A man may love his house, and yet not ride on the ridge.

A man's folly ought to be his greatest secret.

A man that breaks his word bids others be false to him.

A man that keeps riches and enjoys them not, is like an ass that carries gold and eats thistles.

A penny saved is a penny got.

A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger.

A spur in the head is worth two in the heels.

A willing mind makes a light foot.

A wise man begins in the end, a fool ends in the beginning.

A wise man's thoughts walk within him, but a fool's without him.

A wise man makes all his passions subservient to his reason.

A young man negligent—an old man necessitous.

All covet, all lose.

All fools are not knaves, but all knaves are fools.

All that's said in the parlor should not be heard in the hall.

A hypocrite pays tribute to God, only that he may impose upon men.

An intemperate patient makes a cruel doctor.

An obedient wife commands her husband.

As good do nothing as to no purpose.

As a wise child maketh a happy father, so a wise father maketh a happy child.

As you are never sure of an hour, never squander away a minute.

Adversity flattereth no man.

Ask thy purse what thou shouldst buy.

At the gate which suspicion enters, love goes out.

A prudent woman is in the same class of honor as a wise man.

A liar is necessarily a coward.

A solitary life has no charms for an ambitious mind.

All virtues are in agreement; all vices are at variance.

Avarice is always poor, but poor by her own fault.

Anger begins with folly, and ends with repentance.

A man that hath no virtue in himself, envieth it in others.

A wise man endeavors to shine in himself, a fool to outshine others.

A faithful friend is the medicine of life.

A gentle reply to scurrilous language is the most severe revenge.

Backbiting oftener proceeds from pride than malice.

Be a friend to thyself, and others will be so too.

Be frugal of your time, but not at the expense of your health.

Be lively but not light, solid but not sad.

Be in peace with many, nevertheless have but one counsellor of a thousand.

Be prudent, but not crafty.

Better have an old man to humor, than a young man to break your heart.

Beware of a reconciled enemy, and an untried friend.

Borrow not too much upon time to come.

Borrowed garments never fit well.

Bought wit is best but may cost too much.

Breaking your faith may gain you riches, but never glory.

Bring your line to the wall, not the wall to the line.

Buyers want a hundred eyes, sellers none.

Buy other's faults, wise men correct their own.

Care will kill a cat, yet there is no living without it.

Cast no dirt into the well that hath given you water.

Cast not the helve after the hatchet.

Charity and pride have different aims, yet both feed the poor.

Children have wide ears and long tongues.

Cleanliness is both decent and advantageous.

Close thine ear against those that open their mouth against others.

Conduct, resolution, and courage perform great things.

Confine your tongue, or else it will confine you.

Covetous and envious men are never at rest.

Craft must have clothes, but truth loves to go naked.

Death hath nothing terrible in it, but what life hath made so.

Death is the wish of some, the relief of many, the end of all.

Debt is the worst poverty.

Decency and decorum are not pride.

Delight in, and frequent the company of good men.

Discreet wives have sometimes neither eyes nor ears.

Do good with what thou hast, or it will do thee no good.

Do nothing to-day that you will repent of to-morrow.

Everybody's business is nobody's business.

Every heart hath its own aches.
 Every may-be hath a may-not-be.
 Every one can tame a shrew but he that has her..

Experience is the best adviser, but it is better to learn by others than our own.

Face to face the truth comes out.

Fancy surpasses beauty.

Fame is as difficult to be preserved, as to be acquired.

Fear may keep a man out of danger, but courage only can support him in it.

Few things are impossible to industry and skill.

Fish and guests smell at three days old.

Fools may sometimes give wise men counsel.

Gain got by a lie will burn one's fingers.

Give a dog an ill name, and his work is done.

Give things their right color, not varnish them with false gloss.

Good jests bite like lambs, not like dogs.

Good men are happy both in life and death; the wicked in neither.

Good nature is a great misfortune if it wants prudence.

Good offices are the cement of society.

Good works will never save you, but you can never be saved without them.

Gossiping and lying go together.

Gratitude preserves old friendship, and procures new.

Have not thy cloak to make when it begins to rain.

He declares himself guilty who justifies himself before accusation.

He is unworthy to live, who lives only for himself.

He that always complains is never pitied.

He that blows in the dust, fills his own eyes.

He that has no shame, has no conscience.

He that listens after what people say of him, shall never have peace.

He that makes himself an ass, must not take it ill if men ride him.

He that is cheated twice by the same man, is an accomplice with the cheater.

He that hinders not a mischief when it is in his power, is guilty of it.

Hearts may agree though heads differ.

He who greases his wheels, helps his oxen.

He is an ill boy that goes like a top, no longer than 'tis whipped.

Honesty is the best policy.

Hypocritical piety is double iniquity.

If favors place a man above his equals, his fall places him below them.

If you can say no good, say no ill of your neighbors.

If you can live free from want, care for no more, for the rest is but vanity.

If you don't open the door to the devil, he goes away.

If you marry in haste, you may repent at leisure.

If you would know the value of a ducat, try to borrow one.

Ignorance is never the mother of true devotion.

Ill-will never speaks well, nor doth well.

Injury must never provoke a good man to do wrong.

It were base first to raise a confidence, and then deceive it.

Just praise is only a debt, but flattery is a present.

Keep your shop, and your shop will keep you.

Knowledge is the treasure, but judgment the treasure of a wise man.

Learn both how to receive and to refuse a favor.

Learning is preferable to riches, and virtue to both.

Let reason go before every enterprise, and counsel before every action.

Liberality and thankfulness are the bonds of concord.

Little said is soon mended.

Liberality is not giving largely, but giving wisely.

Life is half spent before we know what it is.

Listeners hear no good of themselves.

Live and let live.

Look not a gift-horse in the mouth.

Lost time never returns.

Love thy friend with all his faults ;
none are without imperfections.

Lying lips are an abomination.

Maids want nothing but husbands,
and then they want everything.

Make choice of your wife by the
ears, not the eyes.

Make no enemies ; he is insignificant
indeed that can do thee no harm.

Make other men's shipwrecks thy
sea marks.

Manners make a man.

Many come to bring their clothes to
church, rather than themselves.

Marriage has many pains, but cel-
ibacy has no pleasures.

Men can better suffer to be denied
than to be deceived.

More credit can be thrown down in
a moment than can be built in an
age.

Most men employ their first years so
as to make their last miserable.

Neither believe rashly, nor reject
obstinately.

Neither look out for troubles, nor
be entirely unprovided for them.

Never accuse others to excuse thy-
self.

Never marry without love, nor love
without reason.

No man is wise or safe but he that
is honest.

None knows the weight of another's
burden.

Nothing will ever be attempted, if
all possible objections must be first
overcome.

Obedience is better than many ob-
lations.

Of all virtuous works the hardest
is to be humble.

One bird in the hand is worth two
in the bush.

One good head is better than a great
many hands.

One often repents of saying too
much, but seldom of saying too little.

Omission of good is a commission
of evil.

Ponder the path of thy feet ; look
well to thy goings.

Prepare for sickness in health, and
for old age in youth.

Promise little and do much.

Prosperity is no just scale ; ad-
versity is the only balance to weigh
friends.

Poverty wants some, luxury many,
avarice all things.

Prudence is not satisfied with may-
be's.

Solid love, whose root is virtue, can
no more die than virtue itself.

Some people write, and others talk
themselves out of their reputation.

Sow good works, and thou shalt
reap gladness.

Spend the day well, and thou wilt
rejoice at night.

Study men as well as books.

That seldom remains a secret which
is made known to three.

The great art of life is to play for
much, and stake little.

The more true merit a man has, the
more does he applaud it in others.

Thine own friend and thy father's
friend forsake not.

Think before you speak, and con-
sider before you promise.

Think not to reap in seed-time, or
sow in harvest.

Those best can bear reproof who
merit praise.

To humble a proud man, you must
take no notice of him.

To err is human, to forgive divine.

To live, nature affordeth ; to live
content, wisdom teacheth.

To own yourself in an error, is to
show that you are wiser than you were.

True greatness of life is to be master
of ourselves.

Truth and honesty have no need of
loud protestations.

When ill reports are spread of you,
live so as that nobody will believe
them.

Wherever the speech is corrupted,
so is the mind.

Wisdom and virtue make the poor
rich, and the rich honorable.

Without friends the world is but a
wilderness.

Without frugality none can be rich,
and with it very few would be poor.

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A live Magazine in the interest of a live cause, and meeting a universal want felt by all Patrons.

The growth of the Order has been so rapid, and its accession to power and influence (a pure and wholesome influence) so sudden, that there has been great danger lest its Intellectual and Social features should not receive the attention which they merited; for it should not be forgotten, that

SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL CULTURE,

the advancement of the Order in *intelligence*, and in that *higher education* which should make them *better citizens, wiser legislators and rulers*, and more thoroughly qualified for the exercise of all the duties of our free American Life,

Were the objects primarily had in view by the founders of the Order,

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☞ One of the most prominent features of our Order is, that we not only admit *WOMAN* to membership, but to a participation in official position; and a very large part of the enjoyment and popularity of the Grange, and we believe its future permanence, is due to this feature of its organization. American women are to a far greater extent than the women of any other country, great readers, and it is absolutely indispensable, from the social, as well as the intellectual point of view, that we should, as an Order, furnish to them an intellectual and social Magazine, which shall supply to them the instruction, amusement, and information which they desire.

Let us say, just here, that we have no disposition to overlook or ignore the good work which has been done, and is still being done, by the numerous weekly and monthly periodicals devoted to farming interests in the several States. Many of these have set apart a portion of their space, some more

and some less, to the consideration of topics connected with our Order, and what they have done has, so far as we have had the opportunity of observing, been done well; but it has been but an episode in their general work; it has been necessarily local and confined, at the widest, to the State in which it was published, and could not cover the ground which we propose to cover by our Magazine. We welcome most heartily these local co-workers in the field, and shall not fail to support, so far as we can, their claims to patronage, and shall hope to receive from them the same cordial welcome. Our aims are to

BUILD UP OUR NOBLE ORDER.

We believe this can best be accomplished by a unity of purpose. We propose our Illustrated Magazine to be the organ of the National, and as far as possible, of all the State Granges, whose object shall be to promote the

Co-operative, Intellectual, Social, and Moral

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LADIES' OR HOUSEHOLD DEPARTMENT

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FLORA, POMONA, AND CERES,

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